

T H E  
L I T E R A R Y A N D B I O G R A P H I C A L  
M A G A Z I N E,  
A N D  
B R I T I S H R E V I E W,  
F o r   A U G U S T,   1792.

L I F E O F S I R H E N R Y V A N E.  
W I T H A N E L E G A N T H E A D.

**S**IR HENRY VANE, who made a considerable figure in the last century, was the eldest son of Sir Henry Vane, of Hadlow, in Kent. He was born about the year 1612, and received his education at Westminster-school. When he attained to the age of sixteen, he was admitted a gentleman commoner of Magdalen Hall, Oxford; and after this he resided some time in France and Geneva, from the latter of which he brought back with him a strong prejudice against the government and liturgy of the church of England. His father, then controller of the household, and a privy counsellor to King Charles I. was extremely angry at his entertaining such principles: and it being suggested to the king that the heir of a considerable family had conceived a dislike to the ceremonies of the church, Bishop Laud, in conformity with his majesty's wishes, took him severely to task; and though he seemed to treat him gently at first, he concluded harshly enough against him in the end; but in what manner we are not exactly informed.

Finding himself therefore uncomfortable at home, and being of a giddy disposition, he joined himself, in 1634, to some non-conformists, and went over to the infant colony of New England, in America, which at that time was a receptacle for discontented minds, and filled with people who professed almost every kind of religion. His father was at first averse to his taking this voyage; but the king being informed of his son's inclination, obliged him to consent to his being absent for three years. His design, as he pretended, was to begin a settlement on the banks of the river Connecticut.

He had scarcely landed, when his abilities recommended him to notice, and at the next election of magistrates for the colony of Massachusetts, he was chosen governor. As he

was, however, a hot-headed young man, without experience, and an enthusiastic rigid puritan, he created amongst the people a thousand scruples of conscience, of which they had never before entertained any idea. He openly espoused the Antinomian doctrines, and gave so much encouragement to those preachers who spread them, as might have occasioned some disturbance, had not the sober thinking part of the inhabitants, observing his conduct, concerted such measures amongst themselves as put an end to his government at the next election.

Some time after he returned privately to England, about 1639, and seeming then to be much reformed from his extravagancies, he married, with his father's approbation, Miss Frances Wray, a lady of a respectable family in Lincolnshire. Through his father's influence with Algernon Percy, Earl of Northumberland, who at that time was Lord High Admiral of England, he was about the same period joined with Sir William Russel in the office of treasurer of the navy, a place of considerable trust and profit. Having soon risen into notice on account of his talents and abilities, he was chosen by the burgesses of the town of Kingston upon Hull one of their representatives in the parliament, which met at Westminster, April 13, 1640, and again in the long parliament, which began on the 3d of November the same year.

In June, 1640, he received the honour of knighthood from King Charles I.; but thinking both his father and himself ill used by the court,\* he opposed Charles and all his measures with the utmost virulence.

During the Earl of Strafford's trial, he communicated a very ma-

terial paper, which he privately took from his father's study. This paper contained the following words, respecting the war with Scotland—"Borrow 100,000*l.* of the city of London; go on vigorously to levy ship-money; your majesty having tried the affection of your people, you are absolved and loose from all rule of government, and to do what power will admit. Your majesty having tried all ways, and being refused, shall be acquitted before God and man. And you have an army in Ireland that you may employ to reduce *this kingdom* to obedience, for I am confident the Scots cannot hold out five months." What was accounted the most criminal in these words was the proposal of bringing an army out of Ireland to reduce *this kingdom* to obedience; by which the Earl's enemies understood England: but if he spoke any such words, he plainly meant Scotland, which was then in a state of rebellion; for, as he said in his defence, how could the word *this* reasonably imply England, because England was not out of the way of obedience, and because there never was the least intention of landing the Irish army in that country.

On the 26th of February, 1640-1, Sir Henry carried up to the House of Lords the articles of impeachment against Archbishop Laud; and in June, 1643, he was nominated one of the assembly of divines. The following month he was appointed one of the commissioners of parliament to Scotland, to negotiate a treaty with that nation, and to engage them in the interest and service of parliament. These commissioners set out on the 20th of July, and arrived at Leith on the 22d of September following. Sir Henry, on his return to London, made a report of all their

\* The father was displeased because Sir Thomas Wentworth had opposed his being made Secretary of State; and the son, because the said Sir Thomas wished to be created Baron of Raby, in the diocese of Durham, an estate belonging to the Vane family, an honour which Sir Henry expected for himself: such are often the causes of opposition to court measures, and consequently of what too often is dignified with the title of patriotism.

their proceedings to the House of Commons. He, among the rest, took the covenant, which was indeed principally his contrivance, on the 22d of September, and subscribed it next to Oliver Cromwell. About this time he found means to supplant Sir William Ruffel, and to get himself appointed sole treasurer of the navy, which place he held till the first wars between the English and the Dutch. While in that office he shewed, as we are told, a very uncommon example of honour and integrity. The fees being then four-pence in the pound, which, on account of the war, amounted to little less than 30,000*l.* a year, Sir Henry considered this sum as too much for a subject, and generously gave up the patent he had for life from King Charles I. to the parliament, and requested only 2000*l.* a year for an agent, whom he had bred up to the business, suffering the remainder to go to the public. This was accordingly done, and the custom of giving a fixed salary to the person who holds that office has continued ever since.

About the beginning of the year 1645, he was one of the commissioners from the parliament at the treaty of Uxbridge, and he was present in the same capacity at the Isle of Wight, but he always professed himself an enemy to peace.

Having been always unsettled in matters of religion, when the Independents sprung up he declared himself one of their leaders, and afterwards veered about with every new wind of doctrine, becoming in succession Presbyterian, Independent, Anabaptist, Fifty - Monarchyman, &c. &c.

In June, 1649, he was one of the commissioners sent to the army to acquaint them what the parliament had done for their satisfaction, and to persuade them to comply with the wishes of that body. It does not, however, appear that he had any share in the king's trial or death; but after these events he was one of

the most zealous partisans of the commonwealth.

In 1649, and the three following years, he was appointed one of the council of state; and in 1652 he was for some time president of that council, being then also one of the commissioners of the navy. Towards the latter end of the year 1651 he had been nominated one of the commissioners sent to Scotland, in order to introduce the English government there, and to effect an union between the two kingdoms; but Sir Henry, for his part, sowed only dissension among the contending parties of the clergy in that country. To embroil affairs, and have every thing unsettled, except perhaps a commonwealth with great latitude and libertinism, seems indeed to have been his natural desire, as well as earnest endeavour. When Cromwell, therefore, set about usurping the supreme authority, he became one of his most violent opposers, and strained every nerve to supplant and even to ruin him.

He was one of the great opposers of the dissolution of the long parliament, and continuing his exertions against Cromwell, the latter summoned him, in 1656, to appear before him in council. After some delays, he at length appeared, and was charged by the Protector with disaffection to the government, which he had clearly shewn in a book lately published by him with a seditious intention, entitled, *A healing Question proposed and resolved*. Sir Henry did not disown his dissatisfaction with the then present state of affairs, and owned, at the same time, that he wrote the book above-mentioned. Cromwell therefore ordered him to give security before a limited day, that he would not disturb the peace of the nation, or else to stand committed. When the time was expired, he again appeared before the council, and delivered into Cromwell's own hand another paper, containing the reasons of his disapproving the usurpation, together

with a friendly advice to the Protector to return to his duty, and some justification of his own conduct with regard to the public. But notwithstanding all this, and various reasons alledged by him as an excuse for not giving the required security, one of which was the summons sent him to appear in parliament, he was sent prisoner to Carisbrook castle, in the Isle of Wight.

Being released thence on the 31st of December, 1656, he repaired to London, where he experienced a persecution of another kind. Cromwell finding that his scheme of throwing him into prison had not been attended with success, he privately encouraged some of the army to take possession of certain forest walks belonging to him near Raby castle; and gave orders also to the Attorney General, under pretence of a flaw in his title, to file a bill against him in the Exchequer. This was done with a view of making him produce his title; and had that been accomplished, it was hoped that by the ingenuity of the lawyers some defect might have been found in it, which might have forced him into a compliance; but he was privately informed at the same time, that he should be freed from this or any other inquisition, and obtain whatever he could desire, in case he would submit to the authority of the Protector. He remained inflexible, however, during all Oliver's time, and during that also of his successor Richard, against whom there were many meetings of the chief partisans of the commonwealth at Sir Henry's house, near Charing-cross.

In 1659, great endeavours were used to keep him out of Richard's parliament; and, by direction, the returning officers at Hull and Bristol would not return him, though, as is said, he had the majority. Yet he was at length chosen for Whitechurch, in Hampshire, through the interest of Robert Wallop, Esq. In that assembly, he and other republicans laboured to overturn the settle-

ment of a Protector and two Houses of Parliament, and to introduce a commonwealth. By their abilities they soon lessened Richard's power, and gained an ascendancy over his party, to which a warm speech of Sir Henry's is said to have not a little contributed. This speech was in these words—"Mr. Speaker, among all the people of the universe I know none who have shewn so much zeal for the liberty of their country as the English at this time have done: they have, by the help of Divine Providence, overcome all obstacles, and have made themselves free. We have driven away the hereditary tyranny of the house of Stuart at the expense of much blood and treasure, in hopes of enjoying hereditary liberty, after having shaken off the yoke of kingship; and there is not a man amongst us who would have imagined that any person would be so bold as dare to attempt the ravishing from us freedom, which cost us so much blood and so much labour. But so it happens, I know not by what misfortune, we are fallen into the error of those who poisoned the emperor Titus, to make room for Domitian, who made away Augustus, that they might have Tiberius, and changed Claudius for Nero. I am sensible these examples are foreign from my subject, since the Romans in those days were buried in lewdness and luxury; whereas the people of England are now renowned all over the world for their great virtue and discipline; and yet suffer an ideot, without courage, without sense, nay without ambition, to have dominion in a country of liberty. One could bear a little with Oliver Cromwell, though contrary to his oath of fidelity to the parliament, contrary to his duty to the public, contrary to the respect he owed to that venerable body from whom he received his authority, he usurped the government,



"ment. His merit was so extraordinary, that our judgments, our passions, might be blinded with it. He made his way to empire by the most illustrious actions; he had under his command an army that had made him a conqueror, and a people that had made him their general. But as for *Richard Cromwell* his son, who is he? What are his titles? We have seen that he had a sword by his side, but did he ever draw it? And what is of more importance in this case, is he fit to get obedience from a mighty nation, who could never make a footman obey him? Yet we must recognize this man as our king, under the title of Protector! a man without birth, without courage, without conduct. For my part I declare, Sir, it shall never be said that I made such a man my master."

After *Richard's* abdication, the long parliament, that had been restored by a general council of the officers of the army, constituted *Sir Henry* one of the committee of safety on the 9th of May, and on the 13th of the same month, one of the council of state. On the 26th he was appointed the first of the seven commissioners for managing the affairs of the admiralty; and in September he was made president of the council, about which time he proposed a new form of government.

Upon the council of the army's exclusion of the parliament on the 13th of October, he was nominated four days after one of the committee of ten from the council of state, to consider of fit ways to carry on the affairs of government, and also one of the committee to nominate officers of the army. On the 26th, when the committee of safety was formed, he was one of that body, whose design was apprehended to be to overthrow the magistracy, the ministry, and the law.

Being sent for on the re-assembling of the long parliament, he came and took his place in the House,

January the 9th, 1659-60. He was then questioned respecting his compliance with the army during the late interruption; and though he answered ingenuously, it was voted that he should forthwith repair to his house at Raby, and remain there during the pleasure of parliament. Having delayed to remove from London, on account of illness, either real or pretended, and having endeavoured to stir up the enemies of the then government to rise and take arms, an order was made, on the 1st of February, for his being taken into custody, and sent to Raby; and another was made on the 13th for the Serjeant at Arms to carry him to his house at Bellew, in Lincolnshire, which was in the way to his house at Raby.

After the restoration of *King Charles II.* having done nothing, as he thought, in relation to public affairs, for which he would not willingly and cheerfully suffer, he came up from the country, and resided at his house at Hamblead, near London. On June the 11th, however, 1660, the House of Commons resolved that he should be one of the twenty persons excepted out of the act of general pardon and oblivion, in respect to such pains, penalties, and forfeitures, not extending to life, as should be thought fit to be inflicted on him. As he never applied to the king, but kept himself at a distance from court, he was looked upon as a disaffected person, engaged with some of the army in a plot to drive his majesty again from England, and was committed to the Tower in the month of July following. Being now beheld with a suspicious eye, he was removed from one prison to another, and at last sent to the Isle of Scilly; and though a petition was presented to the king by the Lords and Commons in 1660, requesting, that if he should be attainted, sentence of death might not be passed upon him; to which a favourable answer, though in general terms, was returned, yet in July, 1661,

1661, the Commons so far altered their sentiments, as to order that he should be proceeded against according to law, and for that purpose be remanded back to the Tower.

In the Easter term, 1662, he was indicted of high treason; and the Grand Jury having found the bill, he was arraigned, on the 3d of June following, at the bar of the King's Bench. The substance of the charge against him was, that "he did compass and imagine the death of the king; contrived totally to subvert the ancient form of government, and to keep out the said sovereign Lord from the exercise of his regal government; to effect which he had traitorously and maliciously assembled and consulted with other false traitors; had appointed officers, and arrayed a multitude, to the number of a thousand persons, with guns, &c." On June the 6th, the day of his trial, he pleaded strongly that no treason could be committed against a king *de jure* and not *de facto*, such as King Charles II. was from 1648 to 1659, when the crimes laid against him were alledged to have been committed; and that as he acted by the authority of parliament, the supreme court of the nation, could not be questioned by an inferior court. His enemies affirm that his whole behaviour was so assuming and insolent, that the court and king's council told him, that his own defence would have furnished a fresh charge against him, and the highest evidence of his inward guilt, had there not been such a cloud of witnesses to prove the particulars. His friends, on the contrary, maintain that he displayed astonishing eloquence, and behaved with great soundness of judgment and presence of mind.

On the 11th of June he received sentence to be hanged, drawn, and quartered, at Tyburn; but at the request of his friends, this sentence was changed to beheading on Tower Hill. Some endeavoured to persuade him to make submission to the

king, and to try by these means to save his life: but he replied, that "if the king did not think himself more concerned for his own honour and word than he did for his life, he was very willing he should take it. Nay, he declared, that he valued his life less in a good cause, than the king could do his promise." The warrant therefore for his execution being signed, he was drawn on a sledge to Tower Hill, on the 14th of June, and beheaded in the very same place where the Earl of Strafford had been before sacrificed to popular fury.

The sheriff had beforehand signified to him, that he must not speak any thing against his majesty or the government; but beginning to throw out reflections against both in his last speech on the scaffold, as the lieutenant of the Tower apprehended, he was interrupted by drums and trumpets, placed about the scaffold, on purpose to drown his voice. Bishop Burnet accounts for this new and very indecent practice, as he calls it, in the following manner—"It was observed," says he, "that the dying speeches of the regicides had left impressions on the hearers that were not at all to the advantage of the government. So strains of a peculiar nature being expected from him, to prevent that, drummers were placed under the scaffold, who, as soon as he began to speak of the public, upon a signal given, struck up with their drums. This put him in no disorder. He desired they might be stopped, for he understood what was meant by it. Then he went through his devotions; and as he was taking leave of those about him, he happening to say somewhat with relation to the times, the drums struck up the second time, so he gave over, and died with so much composedness, that it was generally thought the government had lost more than it had gained by his death." R. Baxter also observes, that "no man could die

"with

"with greater appearance of a gallant resolution and fearlessness than he did, though before supposed a timorous man. Inasmuch, that the manner of his death procured him more applause, than all the actions of his life."

Sir Henry published several pieces; but his compositions do not exhibit that wisdom, judgment, extraordinary parts, and great understanding, for which some have extolled him. Lord Clarendon observes, that "so much dissimulation and enthusiasm, such vast parts and such strong delusions, so much good sense and so much madness, can hardly be believed to meet in any one man in the world." As to his person, Sir Henry had an unusual aspect, which, though it might naturally proceed both from his father and mother, neither of whom were beautiful persons, yet made

men think that there was something in him extraordinary; and indeed his whole life shewed, that this opinion was founded on the justest grounds.

Sir Henry left only one son, named Christopher, who was knighted by King Charles II. and advanced by King William on the 8th of July, 1699, to the title of Lord Barnard, of Barnard Castle. Sir Christopher Vane married Elizabeth, the eldest daughter of Gilbert Holles, Earl of Clare, and left two sons, Gilbert and William. Gilbert succeeded him, and dying April the 27th, left among many other children Henry, his eldest son, who was created, April the 3d, 1754, Viscount Barnard and Earl of Darlington. William was advanced in June, 1720, to the titles of Viscount Vane and Baron Duncannon, in the county of Tyrone, in Ireland.

## B I O G R A P H I A N A ;

OR, ANECDOTES OF ILLUSTRIOUS PERSONS.

### NUMBER V.

FILIPPO STROZZI,

**W**AS concerned in a conspiracy against the house of Medicis, 1538. He was taken prisoner, and put to the torture, which he bore with the greatest fortitude. Threatened, however, with the rack a second time, he stabbed himself, and before he died, wrote on one of the walls of his prison this line of Virgil—

*Exoriare aliquis, nostris ex ossibus ultor.*

This great man was so perfect a republican, that though he was very wealthy, and had great power in the state of Florence, as M. Requier tells us in his life, he would never permit himself to be called Monseigneur, saying always, "Je ne suis, ni avocat, ni chevalier, mais Philippe, né d'un commercant. Je vous voulez donc m'avoir pour ami appelez moi simplement, de mon nom, & ne me faites plus l'injure

de m'attribuer des titres, car attribuant à l'ignorance le première fois, se prendrai le second pour un trait de malice."—"I am neither an advocate, nor a knight, but Phillip, the son of a trader. If therefore you wish to have me for your friend, call me by my name only, and do not offend me by giving me titles. The first time I attribute to your ignorance; if you repeat it, I shall deem it an act of malice."

LORENZO de MEDICIS,

Called the Great, and the Father of Letters, was the encourager and patron of the men of learning of his times. He sent John Lascaris into Greece, in search of ancient Greek manuscripts, and was himself an excellent scholar, as well as a very good Italian poet. After his death, a volume of poems in Italian, written by him, was published at Venice. "C'etoit," says Vol-

Voltaire, "une chose aussi admirable qu'éloignée de nos mœurs, de voir ce citizen qui faisoit toujours le commerce, vendre d'une main les denrées du Levant, & soutenir de l'autre le fardeau des affaires publiques, entretenir des facteurs, & donner audience aux ambassadeurs, donner des spectacles aux peuples, & des asiles aux malheureux, & orner sa patrie d'édifices superbes."—"It was a thing very extraordinary, and very different from our customs, to see a citizen who always followed trade, with one hand selling the commodities of the Levant, and with the other supporting the burthen of public affairs; instructing his factors, and giving audience to ambassadors; treating the people with shows, affording protection to the unfortunate, and ornamenting his country with superb edifices." The history of the illustrious house of Medicis (of which Lorenzo was a most worthy descendant) is a desideratum in our language, and would comprehend a great deal of very curious and instructive matter. The renewal of learning, the various intrigues of the different states of Italy, their literature and fine arts, materials are now supplied with a more liberal hand than formerly, since the publication of the history of Medicis in Italy, and Teraboschi's history of Italian literature. To these might be added, Vafari, &c. with many other books, which a knowledge of Italian history and literature would suggest. To Varrillas's history of the house of Medicis much credit cannot be laid, however entertaining it is, and however elegantly written. The learned and ingenious author of the essay on the life and writings of Mr. Pope, had such a history once in contemplation; and what a loss is it to literature, that his avocations have not permitted him to go on with it. A history of this kind is said to be at present in the hands of a celebrated professor, who

distinguished himself during the time of the American war, by a tract that he wrote upon history of the colonization of the states of antiquity.

*Don BONAVENTURE D'ARGONNE,*

Is the author of those exquisite *Melanges de Literature*, in three vols. 12mo. that go under the name of *Vegreuil de Merville*. After having lived much in the world, he commenced Carthusian, and died in 1704, in a convent of that order at Guillon, near Rouen. The *Dictionnaire Historique*, on what authority I know not, says, that though the two first volumes were written by himself, the third is entirely the work of Abbé Banier. Don Argonne wrote *de la Lecture des Peres de L'Eglise*, 12mo. and *L'Education, Maximes & Reflexions de Moncade*, 12mo.

*DESCARTES.*

This great man appears to have written more from himself, than perhaps any author that ever existed. His works are completely spun out of his own brain. He used to lay in bed the greater part of the day, thinking that situation the most favourable to meditation. He appears in his temper and conduct to have been the most perfect philosopher the world has ever seen. His motto was from Ovid—

*Bene qui labuit, bene vixit.*

His letters, in several volumes, contained many curious particulars of his manner of thinking; in one of them he says, "Au lieu de trouver le moyen de conserver la vie, j'en ai trouvé une autre bien plus sur c'est celui de ne pas craindre la mort."—"Instead of seeking for a method to preserve life, I have found out one of much greater importance, that is, not to fear death." In another he says, "Je mets ma liberté à si haut prix, que tous les rois du monde ne pourroient me l'acheter."—"I value my liberty at so

so high a price, that the kings of the earth are not able to purchase it." Yet he had not firmness of mind to resist the solicitations of Christina, Queen of Sweden, who prevailed upon him to follow her to Stockholm, where he died at the age of fifty-four, from the extreme severity of the climate. When Revius, who became acquainted with him at Deventer, was one day pressing him to become a Protestant, Descartes replied, "J'ai la religion du Roi."—"I am of the king's religion." And being further pressed by him, he added, "J'ai la religion de ma nourrice."—"I am of my nurse's religion." Revius talked to him no more on that subject.

Revius used to say, that he had never seen but two books on his table, Ovid's *Metamorphoses*, translated into French, and a work of Kepler's.

THOMAS CHATTERTON.

This ingenious and profligate young man appears in some degree to have resembled a young Frenchman of the name of Seran, whom Sully, in his memoirs, Book 14, thus describes—"He was a young man of a genius so lively, and an understanding so extensive, as rendered him scarce ignorant of any thing that could be known; of so vast and ready a comprehension, that he immediately made himself master of what he attempted, and of so prodigious a memory, that he never forgot what he had once learned. He possessed all parts of philosophy and the mathematics, particularly fortifications and drawing. Even in theology he was so well skilled, that he was an excellent preacher, whenever he had a mind to exert that talent, and an able disputant for and against the reformed religion indifferently. He not only understood Greek, Hebrew, and all the languages, which we call learned, but also all the different jargons or modern dialects. He accented and pronounced them

so naturally, and so perfectly imitated the gestures and manners both of the several nations of Europe, and the particular provinces of France, that he might have been taken for a native of all or of any of these countries; and this quality he applied to counterfeit all sorts of persons, wherein he succeeded wonderfully: he was moreover the best comedian, and greatest droll, that perhaps ever appeared. He had a genius for poetry, and had written many verses. He played upon almost all kinds of instruments, was a perfect master of music, and sung most agreeably and justly. He likewise could say mass, for he was of a disposition to do, as well as to know all things.

"But now for the reverse of the medal. Here it appeared that he was treacherous, cruel, cowardly, deceitful, a liar, a cheat, a drunkard, a glutton; a sharper at play, immersed in every species of vice, a blasphemer, an atheist: in a word, in him might be found all the vices contrary to nature, honour, religion, and society; the truth of which he evinced with his latest breath, for he died in the flower of his age in a common brothel, perfectly corrupted by his debaucheries, and with the glass in his hand, cursing and denying God."

Chatterton's affection to his mother and sister was indeed very amiable; his attention to them, as he in some degree rose into reputation, was very praise-worthy. His talents were wonderful, his acquirements in knowledge and literature very great (when we consider what an imperfect education he must have had); his power of applying what he knew, very happy and comprehensive. He seems very early in life to have had an indistinct notion of the reputation he was likely to enjoy, for he said one day to his sister, just as he was setting out for the metropolis, at the age of 17, "I wish, my dear, I knew the learned languages." "Why so,"

M

replied

replied she, "Tom? I think you know enough as it is." "If," said he, "I knew Greek and Latin, I could do any thing; but as it is, my name will live three hundred years at least." When he was a child of five years of age, a relation of the family made him a present of a Delft basin, with a lion enamelled on the side of it. "I had rather," said the child, "that he had put an angel

with a trumpet upon it, to blow my name about with it." Of the controversy respecting Rowley's poems, the late Dr. Johnson used to say—"That is a two-edged sword; it cuts each way; either to suppose the poems with such powers of versification and classical imagery, written in the times of Edward the Fourth, or to suppose that they were the compositions of a boy."

## REMARKS ON THE ARTIFICIAL HORIZONS.

BY MR. REUBEN BURROW, FROM INDIA.

THE utility of a perfect horizon, and the liableness of quicksilver to be disturbed by the least wind, have induced numbers of people to invent artificial horizons of different kinds, and many of them very complicated. Some time ago, having occasion to determine the situation of several places by astronomical observations, and there being no astronomical quadrant belonging to the company in the settlement, I was under a necessity of determining the latitudes by a sextant; and that at a time when the sun passed so near the zenith, as to make it impossible to get meridian altitudes: I therefore collected all the different artificial horizons, and glass roofs and other contrivances for that purpose I could meet with; but though they appeared correct, the results were very erroneous. I examined them, by bringing the two limbs of the sun, seen by direct vision, to touch apparently in the telescope of the sextant, and then observed the reflected images in quicksilver, which still appeared to touch as before; but, on examining the reflected images in the rest of the artificial horizons, none of them appeared to touch; and the error in many was very considerable. I tried a number of other methods with little success, as they were mostly combinations of glasses: at

last accidentally hearing some officers speaking of "tents that would neither turn sun nor rain," I considered that the rays of the sun would pass through cloth unrefracted, and in consequence of this idea I applied some thin mosquito curtain (a kind of silk gauze as close as book-muslin, and perfectly transparent; it is to be stretched over a hoop which stands without touching the vessel containing the mercury) as a covering to the quicksilver, and found it effectually excluded the wind, and admitted the sun; and what is of equal consequence in this country, it totally kept away those minute insects that disturb the surface of the quicksilver in observing: in short, it formed so complete a horizon, that I could not before have hoped for any thing so perfect; and it is equally applicable to the sun and stars.

For taking very great or very small elevations of the sun (which with the common horizon sextants are impracticable in the direct method), a polished metalline instrument might be made in the form of part of a hollow obtuse cone: this might have its axis set perpendicular to the horizon at any time, by means of screws, in a variety of methods; and observations might be made by it with great exactness.

HINTS



HINTS RESPECTING THE TREATMENT OF SLAVES AMONG  
THE ANCIENTS.

THERE have been some who, in justification of the policy of slavery, have adduced as an argument, that it prevailed in the ancient world. If we view the argument in respect to the treatment of slaves, it will not, perhaps, be found to be just.

One reason why the Greeks attained such a general character for excellence in the elegant arts is given, because\* all the menial trades and employments, which devolve in modern society upon the lowest class of citizens, were committed to slaves; and thus the freemen only cultivated the military, gymnastic, and elegant arts.—History does not give us any instances of cruelty, with which the slaves were treated, except in cases where, for political purposes, they were sometimes sacrificed to the exigency of the moment. That their treatment was rather positively mild, we are informed by Juvenal, in his fourteenth satire, “that a man would be considered as a barbarian, if he caused a slave, who had stolen a linen cloth from his table, to be marked with a hot iron.” A crime, for which the laws in most Christian countries have condemned to death our domestics, who are of a free condition. The names of the Gladiators, and the Helotes among the Lacedæmonians, will be perhaps adduced against me. To the former I can only reply, that it was a singular institution, and employed but a few of them; and though the thing itself, abstractedly considered, is barbarous and inhuman, it can no more stigmatize the ancients with inhumanity, than our *duelling*, *boxing*, and *cockfighting* does our nation: to the latter, viz. the Helotes, we may justly say, it was owing to the singu-

lar genius of that legislature, which has had the extraordinary fate of having been the subject of perpetual admiration, without having produced its usual concomitant, imitation. Another reason in support of our argument is, that the pastoral characters in the *Idyllia* of Theocritus, and *Eclogues* of Virgil, were generally slaves. Had they been considered in the same light as our African slaves, and treated with equal cruelty, the judgment of those illustrious authors would never have selected them as subjects adapted to a Muse, that breathes nothing but peace and tranquillity. The theme on which the shepherds descant, love, and the pleasure of rural life, could never have place but in vacant minds. Had their situation been wretched or miserable, the eclogues would have been foreign to truth and nature, and of consequence liable to the same censure, as the piscatory *Eclogues* of Sannazarius. It should seem, however, that the slaves, considered as the property of the master, were provided by him with what are called the necessaries of life. Their labour was light, for the master (if I may be pardoned the indelicacy of the comparison) took as much pleasure in their *embonpoint*, as our modern farmers do in the look and appearance of their cattle: thus provided with a certain subsistence, and all their employment resting in the care of their flocks, they had leisure to cultivate the arts of music and poetry; arts, which are the children of leisure. Hence, if it be not an improper digression, what renders our modern shepherds so ill-adapted to the pastoral muse, is, that the character is now entirely changed; for with what propriety can a modern shepherd, in a state of the ext-

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tremest

\* Reflexions critiques sur la Poésie, &amp;c.

trement indigence and naked misery, in a cold climate, be considered as an object proper for the happy, placid tranquillity of the rural Muse!

Much more might be said upon the subject: these, however, may in some small degree tend to prove, that slavery among the ancients was in fact a state of mild servitude.—The freedmen of the Roman emperors were often their confidants; do the West-Indian planters ever make friends, much more confidants of their slaves? I shall conclude with the following lines of Horace, who in enumerating the common

duties of a citizen, in familiar life, mentions the mild treatment of slaves, and in a manner that proves that he did not enforce it as a duty, but merely as what was commonly practised by every man. Speaking of the man of Argos, who had the singular phrenzy of imagining he heard excellent tragedies in an empty theatre, he adds the following lines:

*Cetera, qui vitæ servaret munia recto  
More; bonus sanè vicinus, amabilis hospes  
Comis in uxorem, posset qui ignoscere servis  
Et signo læso non insanire lagenæ.*

HOR. EPIS. Lib. 2. Epif. 2.

#### PLAN OF THE ASSOCIATION FOR PROMOTING THE DISCOVERY OF THE INTERIOR PARTS OF AFRICA.

OF the objects of enquiry which engage our attention the most, there are none, perhaps, that so much excite continued curiosity, from childhood to age; none that the learned and unlearned so equally wish to investigate, as the nature and history of those parts of the world, which have not, to our knowledge, been hitherto explored. To this desire the voyages of the late Captain Cook have so far afforded gratification, that nothing worthy of research by sea, the poles themselves excepted, remains to be examined. But by land, the objects of discovery are still so vast, as to include at least a third of the habitable surface of the earth: for much of Asia, a still larger proportion of America, and almost the whole of Africa, are unvisited and unknown.

In Asia there are few extensive districts of which we are wholly ignorant; but there are many of which we are imperfectly informed; and to our knowledge of several of these, the expected publication of the travels of Mr. Foster, in the service of the East India Company, may bring material improvement. For, about three years since, in returning from Hindostan to Europe, he tra-

velled by the way of Laldong, Jum-moo, Cashmire, Cabul, Herat, and the Caspian Sea; and though the character of a Moorish merchant, a disguise which the nature of the journey compelled him to assume, would not permit him to depart so far from the usage of Asia, as to make a draught of the country, or to write any other than short memorandums as he passed, yet, if we may judge from the opportunities he had of information, his narrative must be important. It will probably shew the manners and customs, and military strength of the populous tribes that inhabit the mountains on the North of Lahore: it promises to gratify the eagerness which all men express to acquire a knowledge of the sequestered and unexplored, though celebrated country of Cashmire: and there is reason to suppose, that it will also describe the rising empire of the Seiks, the conquerors of Zabeta Cawn, and the rivals of Abdalla. Should this be the case, we shall learn the history of an empire that already extends from the river Attok, the western branch of the Indus, to the banks of the Jumma; and possibly too we may also be

told

told the particulars of a religion, which, according to the accounts received, professes to bring back the Hindoos from the idolatrous veneration of images to the purity of their primitive faith, the worship of One God: a religion, which is said to ascribe to its founder, Nannock, who died about 200 years since, a sacred character, by supposing that he was Brimha, and that this was his last appearance upon earth: a religion, which its followers, in contradiction to the former uniform practice of the believers in the Shaster, endeavour to make universal, and with a zeal which resembles the Mahometan, constantly enforce by the sword.

To our knowledge of America, a large and valuable addition may soon be expected; for several of the inhabitants of Canada had the spirit, about two years since, to send, at their own expence, different persons to traverse that vast continent, from the river St. Lawrence westward to the opposite ocean.

While, in this manner, the circle of our knowledge with respect to Asia and America is gradually extending itself, and advancing towards perfection, some progress has been made in the discovery of particular parts of Africa: for Dr. Sparrman's narrative has furnished important information, to which will soon be added that of Mr. Patterson, whose account of his travels and observations in the southern parts of Africa is already in the press; and if a description of the still more extended travels of Colonel Gordon, the present commander of the Dutch troops at the Cape of Good Hope, should be given to the public, the southern extremity of the African Peninsula may perhaps be justly considered as explored. Mr. Bruce also, it is said, is preparing for the press an account of the knowledge which he has obtained on the eastern side of that quarter of the globe.\*

But notwithstanding the progress of discovery on the coasts and borders of that vast continent, the map of its interior is still but a wide extended blank, on which the geographer, on the authority of Leo Africanus, and of the Xeriff Edrissi the Nubian author, has traced, with a hesitating hand, a few names of unexplored rivers and of uncertain nations.

The course of the Niger, the places of its rise and termination, and even its existence as a separate stream, are still undetermined. Nor has our knowledge of the Senegal and Gambia rivers improved upon that of De la Brue and Moore; for though since their time half a century has elapsed, the Falls of Fela on the first of these two rivers, and those of Baraconda on the last, are still the limits of discovery.

Neither have we profited by the information which we have long possessed, that even on the western coasts of Africa, the Mahometan faith is received in many extensive districts, from the Tropic of Cancer southward to the line. That the Arabic, which the Musselman priests of all countries understand, furnishes an easy access to such knowledge as the western Africans are able to supply, is perfectly obvious; as it also is, that those Africans must, from the nature of their religion, possess, what the traders to the coast ascribe to them, an intercourse with Mecca. But although these circumstances apparently prove the practicability of exploring the interior parts of Africa, and would much facilitate the execution of the plan, yet no such efforts have hitherto been made. Certain however it is, that while we continue ignorant of so large a portion of the globe, that ignorance must be considered as a degree of reproach upon the present age.

Sensible of this stigma, and desirous of rescuing the age from a charge

\* Mr. Patterson's and Mr. Bruce's Travels are now published.

94 *Association for discovering the interior Parts of Africa.*

charge of ignorance, which, in other respects, belongs so little to its character, a few individuals, strongly impressed with a conviction of the practicability and utility of thus enlarging the fund of human knowledge, have formed the plan of an association for promoting the discovery of the interior parts of Africa.

The nature of their establishment will best appear from the following account of their proceedings.

At an adjourned meeting of the Saturday's club, at the St. Alban's Tavern, on the 9th of June, 1788.

*PRESENT.*

EARL OF GALLOWAY.  
LORD RAWDON.  
GENERAL CONWAY.  
SIR ADAM FERGUSSON.  
SIR JOSEPH BANKS.  
SIR WILLIAM FORDYCE.  
MR. PULTNEY.  
MR. BEAUFOY.  
MR. STUART.

*ABSENT MEMBERS.*

BISHOP OF LANDAFF.  
LORD CARYSFORT.  
SIR JOHN SINCLAIR.

Resolved, That as no species of information is more ardently desired, or more generally useful, than that which improves the science of Geography; and as the vast continent of Africa, notwithstanding the efforts of the Ancients, and the wishes of the Moderns, is still in a great measure unexplored, the members of this club do form themselves into an association for promoting the discovery of the Inland Parts of that quarter of the world.

That, for the said purpose, each member do subscribe five guineas a year, for three years; and that at, or after that period, any member, on giving a year's notice, may withdraw himself from the association.

That during the first twelve months from the present day, each

of the members of the club be allowed to recommend, for the approbation of the club, such of his friends as he shall think proper to be admitted to the new association; but that after that time all additional members be elected by a ballot of the association at large.

That a committee, consisting of a Secretary, Treasurer, and three assisting members, be chosen by ballot.

That the said committee, do prepare and submit to the consideration of the members, at the next meeting, such rules as they shall think requisite for the effectual attainment of the object of the new institution, and for its good government.

That the committee be entrusted with the choice of the persons who are to be sent on the discovery of the interior parts of Africa, together with the society's correspondence, and the management of its funds.

That the committee shall not disclose, except to the members of the association at large, such intelligence as they shall, from time to time, receive from the persons who shall be sent out on the business of discovery.

That on the receipt of any interesting intelligence from any of the said persons, the members of the association shall be convened by letters from the Secretary; and that such parts of the said intelligence as, in the opinion of the committee, may, without endangering the object of their association, be made public, shall be communicated to the meeting.

That an account of all monies paid and received shall, on the last Saturday in the month of May in each year, be submitted to the consideration of the society at large, by the Treasurer.

That the members of the committee be chosen by ballot, on the first Saturday in the month of May in each year.

The preceding resolutions having been agreed to by all the members present,

present, they proceeded on the same day, the 9th of June, 1788, in pursuance of their fourth resolution, to chuse a committee by ballot, and the following persons were elected.

LORD RAWDON.  
BISHOP OF LANDAFF.  
SIR JOSEPH BANKS.  
MR. BEAUFOY.  
MR. STUART.

**METHOD OF EXTRACTING A SPIRITOUS LIQUOR FROM CARROTS.**

BY PROFESSOR FORSTER.

**T**HE spirit extracted from carrots by the following method, which, we understand, was contrived by Mr. Forster, professor at Halle, is more pleasant than that which in England is commonly extracted from grain. The quantity is also proportionably greater; and considering that a piece of ground produces in general more carrots than any sort of grain, it is not improper to recommend this method of extracting spirits to the consideration of industrious distillers.

Let twenty pounds weight of clear carrots (*daucus carota* of Linnæus) remain in a damp place for three days: then cut off the small filaments, or fibres, and the leaves. The roots are boiled in 216 quarts of spring water for three hours; during which they must be pressed or broken with a spoon, or spatula, so as to reduce them into a paste. The juice is then separated from the pulp; and having added some hops to it, it must be boiled for five hours longer; after which the liquor, whilst hot, must be poured into a tub; and when its heat is come down to 66° of Fahrenheit's thermometer, six quarts of yeast are added to it.

In a temperature sufficiently warm,

this liquor continues to ferment for about 48 hours, and it deposits the dregs when its heat is become lower than 58°.

Then you must warm upon the fire 48 quarts of juice of the same preparation, but such as has not yet undergone the fermentation, and must pour into the fermented liquor.

This addition raises the heat above the 66th degree, and the liquor begins to ferment anew. This second fermentation continues for 24 hours, after which the heat descends below 58°; the dregs are precipitated again, and the liquor is then put in a cask.

This operation occasions a new fermentation, which lasts three days. During which time the laboratory should remain in a temperature between 44° and 46°.

After all those fermentations, the liquor, being distilled, will yield 200 quarts of spirit, which, being rectified, will furnish 48 quarts of burning spirit.

There is another advantage to be derived from this process, namely, the use of the leaves, and of the pulpy part, separated from the liquor after the first boiling, which is very good food for hogs or cattle.

**METHOD OF CURING INJURIES AND DEFECTS IN TREES.**

BY MR. WILLIAM FORSYTH.

**T**AKE one bushel of fresh cowdung; half a bushel of lime rubbish of old buildings (that from the ceilings of rooms is preferable); half a bushel of wood-ashes; and a sixteenth part of a bushel of pit, or river sand. The three last articles are to be sifted fine before they are mixed; then work them well toge-

ther with a spade, and afterwards with a wooden beater, until the stuff is very smooth, like fine plaster used for the ceilings of rooms. The composition being thus made, care must be taken to prepare the tree properly for its application, by cutting away all the dead, decayed, and injured part, till you come to the  
fresh

fresh sound wood, leaving the surface of the wood very smooth, and rounding off the edge of the bark with a draw-knife, or other instrument, perfectly smooth, which must be particularly attended to. Then lay on the plaister about one eighth of an inch thick, all over the part where the wood or bark has been so cut away, finishing off the edges as thin as possible. Then take a quantity of dry powder of wood-ashes, mixed with a sixth part of the same quantity of the ashes of burned bones; put it into a tin box, with holes in the top, and shake the powder on the surface of the plaister, till the whole is covered over with it, letting it remain for half an hour, to absorb the moisture; then apply more powder, rubbing it on gently with the hand, and repeating the application of the powder, till the whole plaister becomes a dry smooth surface. All trees cut down near the ground should have the surface made quite smooth, rounding it off in a small

degree, as before mentioned; and the dry powder directed to be used afterwards should have an equal quantity of alabaster mixed with it, in order the better to resist the dripping of trees, and heavy rains. If any of the composition be left for a future occasion, it should be kept in a tub, or other vessel, and urine of any kind poured on it, so as to cover the surface; otherwise the atmosphere will greatly hurt the efficacy of the application. Where lime rubbish of old buildings cannot be easily got, take powdered chalk, or common lime, after having been flaked a month at least. As the growth of the tree will gradually affect the plaister, by raising up its edges next the bark, care should be taken, where that happens, to rub it over with the finger when occasion may require (which is best done when moistened by rain), that the plaister may be kept whole, to prevent the air and wet from penetrating into the wound.

#### TO THE EDITORS OF THE LITERARY AND BIOGRAPHICAL MAGAZINE.

GENTLEMEN,

**T**HE genius of Milton has been by some spoken of as not an original one; and that his manner is in a great measure borrowed from writers of an ancient date, as well as many of his ideas; and when he wrote *Paradise Lost*, that he had Homer and Virgil in his eye. It has been said also, that he borrowed largely from the German Jesuit, Masenius, and many modern authors. The subject and design of that most excellent poem is certainly without a precedent; and to look for a fine passage in it, it may be read through, and every line will be found full of sublimity and effect; at the same time you will feel yourself astonished to think what a rich and abundant imagination the author must have had, to carry him through such an arduous undertaking. In many parts how majestically he paints the power and

omnipotence of the Almighty! and how forceably the miserable revenge of Satan, after he revolted from the servitude of the Deity! With what beauty of description does he open his third book, in which he has given the greatest proof of his sublime genius! The subject is certainly the most noble and grand that can be imagined, or could be thought of by man. Indeed to make observations, they may be made from any part, and all will be found fully descriptive and fine. As before I said, I think his subject entirely original, as well as his style and embellishments; and believe that his genius was of such kind, as not to allow him to copy; but I beg an opinion (in a future Number) of some of your ingenious correspondents, who have judgment superior to my own. I am, your constant reader,

CLERICUS.  
MEAN



## MEAN HEAT OF DIVERSE COUNTRIES.

EXTRACTED FROM MR. LE P. COTTE'S PAPERS.

THE extensive correspondence of our author with ingenious persons in different parts of the world, has enabled him to collect a vast number of observations, and to deduce from them the mean heat, or mean temperature of the following countries, which cannot but be very acceptable to the philosophical world.

From an attentive consideration of this table it will appear, that in general the mean heat of countries decreases in proportion as the latitude increases, viz. as they are situated nearer to the poles; but this law is by no means without exceptions; thus for instance, great part of North America is in the same latitude with Italy; yet the mean heat of the former is less than that of the latter. These anomalies are certainly owing to local circumstances, which expose one country to particular currents of wind, to more frequent rains. &c. It is also highly probable, that the increase or decrease of cultivation may contribute to alter the mean temperature of a country; this, however, can only be ascertained from a number of accurate thermometrical observations, continued for a considerable period of years. The subject is very interesting, and therefore it deserves the serious consideration of philosophers.

N. B. The degrees of heat expressed in the table are according to Reaumur's scale, the freezing point of which is at 0, and boiling point at 80°.

*Names of places situated between 13' 17" and 42° 41' 55" of N. latitude.*

	Mean heat.
Peru, America —	20.
Surinam, America —	20,4
Pondicherry, India —	23,7
Madras, India —	22,4
St. Peter's Fort, Martinique —	21,3
Guadaloupe, America —	22,7

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	Mean heat.
Dominique — —	20,1
Mexico — —	13,3
Ile of France, Africa —	21,6
Ile of Bourbon, Africa —	22,5
Chandernagor, Asia —	26,7
Cairo, Egypt — —	17,6
Bagdad, Asia — —	8,6
Cape of Good Hope —	15,5
Syria, Asia Minor —	16,7
Algiers, Africa —	16,5
Williamsburg, Virginia —	11,7
Pekin, China — —	10,1
New-York, America —	9,7
Rome, Italy — —	12,5
Cambridge, America —	7,3
Perpignan, France —	12,3

*Between 42° 42' 59" and 44° 28' 24" of latitude.*

Mont-Louis, in the Pyreneans	5,2
Bastia, Corsica — —	16,2
Tarascon, France — —	12,4
Toulon, France — —	13,4
Rieux, France — —	11,2
Rhodes, France — —	8,1
Marseilles, France —	11,8
Aix, France — —	10,8
Montpellier, France —	12,2
Salon, France — —	13,1
Arles, France — —	11,9
Dax, France — —	9,8
St. Sever, France —	17,6
Manosque, France —	11,3
Nîmes, France — —	12,6
Cavaillon, France —	9,4
Montauban, France —	10,5
Oleron, France — —	11,2
St. Paul-Trois-Châteaux, France	10,5
Viviers, France — —	10,3

*Between 44° 40' 30" and 46° 29' 50" of latitude.*

Bordeaux, France —	10,8
Puy, France — —	8,4
Le Grande Chartreuse —	4,3
Vienne, of the Dauphinois —	10,8
Lyons, France — —	10,6
Clermont, France —	8,6
Villefranche, France —	9,2
Oleron, France — —	11,7
N	Loudun,

	Mean heat.		Mean heat.
Loudun, France —	9,5	Bruxelles —	8,9
Rochelle, France —	9,4	Saintes, France —	9,0
Geneva —	8,3	Dunkerque —	8,6
Lucon, France —	10,1	Dusseldorp, Westphalia —	7,4
<i>Between 46° 30' and 48° of latitude.</i>			
Lausanne, Switzerland —	7,8	London —	8,6
Poitiers, France —	9,2	Gottingen —	6,7
Marans, France —	9,5	<i>Between 51° 35' and 60° 27' 7" of latitude.</i>	
Quebec, America —	4,4	Breda, Dutch Brabant —	8,5
Berne, Switzerland —	7,7	Saganum, Silesia —	6,0
Pontarlier, in Franche Comté —	6,8	Rotterdam —	8,5
Nantes, France —	10,2	Hague, Holland —	8,8
Besançon, France —	8,6	Delft, Holland —	6,6
Loime, France —	7,4	Warsaw, Poland —	7,5
Dijon, France —	8,4	Amsterdam —	8,8
Buda, Hungary —	8,0	Sparandam, Holland —	8,2
Chinon, France —	9,6	Swamburg, Holland —	7,8
Zurich, Switzerland —	8,4	Berlin —	7,6
Neufchatel, Switzerland —	8,4	Lyndon, England —	7,2
Vannes, France —	8,8	Franker, W. Friesland —	9,0
Erlan, Hungary —	8,5	Copenhagen —	6,0
<i>Between 48° 2' and 48° 57' 40" of latitude.</i>			
Munich, Bavaria —	7,0	Moscow —	3,6
Vienna, Austria —	8,1	Hawkhill, Scotland —	7,3
Troyes, France —	9,0	Nair, Labrador —	2,5
Mayenne, France —	8,9	Okak, Labrador —	1,0
Brest, France —	9,8	Stockholm —	5,5
Etampes, France —	8,5	Petersburg —	3,7
Chartres, France —	8,3	Abo, in Finland —	4,1
St. Malo, France —	9,9	<i>Places in Italy.</i>	
Pontorlon, Normandy —	9,6	Alba, Montferrate —	10,4
Provins, France —	9,8	Bologna —	10,9
Nancy, Lorrain —	8,9	Cerevento —	3,2
L'Aigle, France —	8,4	Chiotta —	10,5
Verfailles —	8,8	Coira, Grisons —	6,1
Ratisbon, Bavaria —	7,6	Conegliano, Trevifano —	10,8
Paris —	9,1	Firenza —	13,2
Vire, France —	8,3	Genova —	12,8
Chalons, France —	8,0	Gorizia, Alpes —	10,4
<i>Between 49° and 51° 31' 54" of latitude.</i>			
Montmorency, France —	8,4	Lucca —	12,8
Metz, Germany —	9,3	Maroslica —	11,0
Griflons, France —	9,6	Milan —	10,2
Rouen, France —	8,7	Naples —	15,6
Manheim, Germany —	8,1	Padua —	9,7
Rethel, France —	9,5	Podora —	11,0
Prague —	7,2	Polefine —	9,4
Cambray, France —	9,0	Rome —	12,5
Arras, France —	7,9	Socile —	9,5
St. Omer, France —	7,6	Tolmezo, Alpes —	8,0
Erfurt, Saxony —	7,2	Trento —	9,8
Liege, French Flanders —	7,3	Ulino —	11,1
Liege, Westphalia —	8,4	Venice —	10,9
		Verona —	10,6
		Vicenza —	10,2
		Crespan —	9,2

## HISTORY OF THE HORSE IN ENGLAND.

BY THE LATE RICHARD BERENGER, ESQ.

THE finer and better sort of the more modern English horses, are descended from Arabians and Barbs, and frequently resemble their fires in looks and appearance, but differ from them considerably in size and mould; being more furnished, stout, and lusty. In general they are strong, nimble, of good courage, capable of enduring excessive fatigue, and both in perseverance and speed, surpass all horses in the world.—At the same time it is objected to them, that they are void of grace, and want that expression, if I may use the word, in their figure and carriage, which is so conspicuous in Foreign horses, and so beautiful and attractive, as even to be essentially requisite upon all occasions of pomp and parade: but instead of displaying a dignity of motion, and a conscious air of cheerfulness and alacrity, as if they shared in the pleasure and pride of their riders, and were almost sensible of human passions, they appear in all their actions, cold, indifferent, unanimated. This is so apparent that the most heedless and ignorant spectator, who should, upon any occasion, see them contrasted with horses of action, would be struck with the difference; would be uninterested with the tame and lifeless behaviour of the one, and ravished with the sensibility and well-tempered fire of the other; which, like the sparkling of generous wine in the glass, at once charms the eye, and gives a proof of innate spirit and goodness.—Besides this, the English horses are accused, and not unjustly, of being obstinate and uncomplying in their tempers, dogged and sullen, of having stiff and inactive shoulders,

and wanting suppleness in their limbs: which defects make their motions constrained, occasion them to go near the ground, and render them unfit for the Manege. \*

This is the character of the English horse; to which it may not be improper to add some remarks and anecdotes, which may tend farther to open and set forth the national history of the animal.

England has at all times, even in its rudest state, been possessed of a breed of horses sufficient to answer every purpose for which they were given. Cæsar, when he invaded this island, found its inhabitants not only well furnished with horses, but also very dexterous and expert in the management of them. \* He speaks of their scythed chariots, and celebrates their skill and address in driving them; so that it is certain the use of horses must have been long familiar to them, and the creature much valued, if, in a state bordering on savageness, they knew the art of taming it so well. From these early and dark times the horse has always flourished and been cherished with singular attention in this kingdom.

It is nevertheless impossible to trace or give any description of the species; for, as a judicious and learned naturalist observes, “Those which exist among the Indigenæ of Great Britain, such as the “horses of Wales and Cornwall, “the Hobbies of Ireland, and the “Shelties of Scotland, though admirably well adapted to the uses “of those countries, could never “have been equal to the work of “war.”

This is probably true; but we cannot hence conclude that there might not have been a stouter and

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larger

\* Strabo says they used ornaments of ivory in their bridles, lib. iv.

† Pennant's Brit. Zoolog.

larger breed in several other parts of England, where the pastures are rich, and afford more nourishment, it being certain, that the size of animals may be retarded or advanced, by the quantity and quality of the food on which they are supported; as it is known that in lean and barren soils, cattle of all kinds, are small\*, while, on the other hand, generous land abounding with herbage, will produce animals of a much larger growth. Nor is it unlikely, that the English had in early times, as now, horses of different sizes and characters, and perhaps as various, as the parts of the kingdom in which they were bred. Although it is more probable, as the same curious and accurate observers of nature inform us, that those which were employed in the service of war, as well as for draught, in latter times were the offspring of German or Flemish breeds, mended by our soil, and a judicious culture, and that the present race are descended from them.

The venerable Bede, says, that the English began to use saddle horses about the year 631, when prelates and others rode on horseback, who till then were wont to go on foot; but that, if upon urgent occasions, they were obliged to ride, they used mares † only.

In the reign of Athelstan the English became so jealous of their horses, and entertained so high an opinion of their merit, that a law was made by this King to prohibit their exportation, unless designed for presents. This law seems to prove, that even in those times they were much prized in other countries, and that the demand for them must have either been very large, or the breed not numerous at that time; since otherwise that monarch, as well as some of his successors, instead of preventing the exportation,

would have done better to have encouraged the breed, so as to have kept pace with the demand, and brought considerable sums of money into this country; but pride and jealousy forbade; which, equally blind and strong, still operate in Spain, in Naples, in Turkey, and other places, from which it is not lawful at this day to remove an horse into another country. Besides this, trade at that time, had made but little progress, nor were its advantages duly considered; the commerce of the time being chiefly limited to Germany. This is a reason alledged by the above-cited writer, why the horses of those days must have been purely natives, because, as he says, the Germans could not have been in want of horses of their own breed.

This conclusion, however, though plausible, is not certain: for although they could not have been in want of horses with which their own territories could have furnished them, yet they might have been desirous of having horses which were bred in England, although descended on one side, if not on both, originally, from horses of their own country, mended and improved by the soil and climate, which operate very powerfully, and produce all the variations and distinctions which we see in the animal and vegetable worlds. With respect to the horses of this country, this is really the fact at this day, and has immemorially been so; for admired and valued as they are, and have been, there is no pure and unmixed blood among the finer, if among the middling breeds, as among the Arabs, but all of the first class are directly or remotely allied to foreign blood. The soil and climate, therefore, must be thought greatly to contribute in forming their merit; otherwise, rich and curious persons of  
other

\* Dio Nicæus, speaking of the Britons in the north part of the island, says their horses were small and very swift. Vid. Camden Brit.

† As a mark of humility, the mare not being so full of pride and spirit as the horse.

other nations would act more wisely to raise a breed of their own, to supply their wants from those very countries, where the ancestors of the English horses are brought; but they find by experience, that the descendants of those horses do not thrive and succeed so well in other countries as in this nation, owing, no doubt, to the secret operations of nature, and to the more apparent effects of soil and climate, or, to what the French call in fruit the Gout de Ferroir.

— *Quippe solo natura subest.*

Notwithstanding the tenderness which Athelstan discovered for English horses, and his jealousy of their being sent into other countries, it is certain that he entertained a good opinion of some Foreigners, and received several as presents, which were sent from the continent. It is probable many came from Germany; of several foreign horses he was, however undoubtedly possessed, for in his will \* he bequeaths the horses given him by Thurbrand, together with the white horses given him by Liefbrand; and it may reasonably be presumed, that as the persons who gave these horses were Saxons, the gifts likewise came from the same country: although it appears that he had horses from many different parts of the continent; for it is reported of this monarch, that his character and fame were spread so far, that sundry Princes † sought his alliance and friendship, and sent him "rich presents, precious stores, perfumes, and the finest horses, with golden furniture." And it is to be presumed, that a wise monarch, and lover of horses, would avail himself of this foreign assistance, to diversify and improve the breeds of his own kingdom.

The Conqueror brought many

horses with him from Normandy, and some, perhaps, of other countries, which contributed still farther to augment the variety of breeds in this island; but Roger de Belesme, created Earl of Shrewsbury, by the victorious monarch, rendered a most essential service to the nation, by introducing the stallions of Spain into his estate in Powisland, and through them a more generous and noble breed than this kingdom, perhaps, had ever known. Giraldus Cambrensis takes notice of them, and Drayton, the poet, celebrates their excellence.

This race seems to have been calculated at once for the purposes of war, and the exhibitions of public solemnities, of which horses are always a very essential and ornamental part: for it is not known that at this time, nor till a much later period, that horse-races were introduced into England: although this agreeable and useful diversion, if confined within certain regulations, might have been cultivated with great propriety among a people fond and proud of their horses, and that at a time, when bodily exercises alone were the amusements of all sorts of men; and especially, as the English had opportunities of being instructed in them by the Romans, who generally kept their own customs wherever they came, and left their impression behind them, when they departed. We may, therefore, reasonably conclude, that they were either ignorant of these sports, or, what is more likely, preferred the parade and magnificence of tilts and tournaments, in which the strength, activity, spirit, and beauty of the horse, as well as the skill and courage of the rider, could be more usefully employed, and more gracefully displayed.

[To be continued.]

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\* The will is in Latin, and in the possession of Thomas Astell, Esq.

† Anderson's Orig. of Commerce, p. xlix. vol. 1.

A PHILOSOPHICAL ENQUIRY INTO THE ORIGIN AND PROGRESS  
OF COMMERCE, LITERATURE, AND POLITICS;

AND THEIR CONNECTION AND INFLUENCE ON EACH OTHER.

[*Concluded from Page 24.*]

WITHOUT entering on the celebrated question concerning the eternity of the world, and the possible and probable revolutions of nations, it may be safely affirmed, that the present age is the most enlightened and refined of all those with which we are at all acquainted: and this circumstance has the happiest influence on the general mass and aggregate of human happiness. The sun of science has arisen on the nations with healing under his wings. Literature and philosophy accustom men to think and reason; and they who think and reason much, learn to think and reason justly. A justness of reasoning is friendly to the interests of humanity, by strengthening and enlivening that power by which we perceive and feel the distinction between virtue and vice, and approve the former, and condemn the latter. It diminishes, in the eye of the philosopher who rises to the sublime heights of science, the importance of those objects which are the usual sources of strife and contention. It induces an habit of calculation in all matters that come under consideration, both with respect to the ends men have in view, and the proper means for accomplishing them. And thus it tends to prevent that scourge of human nature, war; or, at least by reducing the art of war and war-like resources to calculation, it brings it to a speedier issue. The military art, being now more complex and mixed with machinery, admits of more certain calculation, than when the enginery of war was more simple, and battles were decided by the wavering tides of courage, and fear, and other passions. We can calculate the force or

amount of inanimated machines; but it is very difficult indeed to form any certain anticipation concerning the general result or effect of the aggregated workings of human minds, brought together either in council or in action. Kings do not now, as formerly, go to war from motives of pique and personal resentment; nor yet, in general, for the empty glory of desolating conquests. They estimate the commercial and political consequence of what they contend for; they compare their own resources with those of their neighbours, and the weaker party, if he is not supported by that political jealousy, which so wisely watches the movements of ambition, listens to terms of accommodation. In a word, just calculation tends to prevent the effusion of blood, by shewing the inutility, as well the inhumanity of such sacrifices.

But there is another way, in which, above all others, the propagation of literature tends to humanize the mind, to restrain the fury and the frequency of war, and to promote peace, and good will, and friendly intercourse among men: it softens and humanizes the manners of men by exercising their mutual sympathy. Polite literature, history, poetry, and all works of imagination, as landscape and historical painting, novels, romances, &c. All these derive their chief charm and influence from the representations they contain of human nature placed in various and interesting situations. The reader enters by sympathy into a thousand characters, circumstances, and situations, and is agitated by a thousand hopes and fears, and other emotions, which could not have been excited



excited in his imagination by all the occurrences and vicissitudes of the most varied life. Thus he becomes, in some measure, a citizen of the world. The antipathies and prejudices which set men at variance with one another are gradually worn off. An habit of indulgence and forbearance is induced into the enlarged mind. Nothing that belongs to human nature, no peculiarity in national character moves either the ridicule or the aversion of the ingenuous and cultivated mind, accustomed to contemplate humanity under an infinite variety of forms, and to feel that sentiment so often quoted from the Latin comic poet: "I myself am a man, and I cannot remain untouched by the joys or the sorrows of human nature."\*

It is impossible, and it would be absurd to attempt to describe, precisely, the share that progressive literature has, in effecting that extended commercial intercourse, which is the characteristic of the present period. But from the very nature of literature, and from experience, which shews that the nations in which it prevails, are distinguished uniformly from their neighbours by the humanity of their disposition, we may conclude that its influence on the tempers, manners, and happiness of nations is very considerable. This is the most humane, because it is the most learned and refined age, with which we are at all acquainted. The arts and sciences are farther advanced, and more widely diffused than ever they were at any former period. and their domain, if we may judge from certain recent discoveries and improvements, is soon to be greatly and rapidly advanced. Passing by the experiments and discoveries in air, and the electrical fluid, that will form an æra in the history of philosophy, we shall just touch on a mechanical invention for

multiplying pictures without the least touch of the hand or pencil, and reducing the prices of the justest copies of the finest paintings so low, that they come within the reach of middling, and even of humble fortunes. It is proper to dwell a little on this invention, rather than some other discoveries in chemistry, because the improvement and diffusion of paintings have a more direct influence on life and manners, and therefore are more closely connected with the subject of an essay that professes to draw the outlines of the present age and state of the world.

Mechanical invention is one of the great pillars that support the grandeur of the British empire. By means of this, notwithstanding the high expence of living in this country, and the growing pressure of accumulated taxes, we are able, in various articles, to undersell nations, where labour is twice as cheap as in England, the expence of living twice as low, and taxes more than twice as moderate.

But it was reserved to the inventor of the Polygraphic Art, to apply mechanical invention, and particularly the power of chemistry, to the diffusion, perpetuation, and in some respects, the improvement of the most generally pleasing and captivating of the liberal arts. This ingenious artist has actually invented a method of multiplying pictures in oil colours, with all the properties of the original paintings, whether in regard to outline, expression, size, variety of tints, and other circumstances, without any touch or finishing by the hand, and without any injury to the original painting. By means of this chemical process, he produces such exact copies or likenesses as cannot, without difficulty, be distinguished from the archetype, even by the eye of an artist or connoisseur, and possesses all the qualities,

\* *Homo sum, & nihil humani a me alienum puto.* TER.

lities, and produces the full effect of the most finished painting; while the price at which it can be delivered to the public is a mere trifle, commonly under, but never exceeding the tenth part of the value of the original. How large a branch of business does this open? What sums must it save to this nation for copies of foreign paintings? How widely will it diffuse a taste for the fine arts? What influence may it not have on the pursuits and pleasures of men? And what polish may it not give to their manners? The polygraphic invention is one of the happiest illustrations that ever appeared of the nature and progress of experimental philosophy, and is conspicuous among the various inventions and improvements which do honour to our nation, and auspiciously mark the present times.

As literature tends to soften the hearts, so it serves to brave and invigorate the understanding, and to unite the minds of men in every good cause, and especially that of freedom. It is on the virtue and vigilance of the people themselves,

and not on the delegates in parliament, that the preservation of their liberties will depend. In this free country, where there is perfect liberty of thought, speech, and action, there are, and there should be as many politicians as there are men. We have seen that division is the grand principle of despotism, and that union among the people, whether it be brought about by literature, or free and frequent personal intercourse, is the grand principle and source of free governments. Let this intercourse and union be duly maintained, and, if the maxim of tyrants be, "divide that you may rule," the motto of the people should be, "let us unite that we may be free." But, in order that there may be an union of wills, it is necessary that there be a coincidence of judgments, and in order that there may be a coincidence of judgments, there must be frequent and free discourse on all that appears most interesting in the vicissitudes that continually pass on the great theatre of the world.

#### AN HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE RISE, PROGRESS, AND PRESENT STATE OF THE ENGLISH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

[ *Continued from Page 29.* ]

THE conduct of the English had produced such universal detestation, that a league was forming in India for the annihilation of the Company's power. The subah of Bengal, the vizier of Oude, and nabob of the Carnatic, were reduced to a state of abject dependence on them. They had ruined the Rohillas, stripped the Mogul of his finest provinces, and were now pointing their strength against the Mahrattas.

This plan originated with the Nizam of the Decan, who first proceeded to mediate, and effected a peace between the Mahrattas and Hyder. The confederacy was now complete; and it was settled that

Hyder and the Nizam should attack the Carnatic and the Circars; the Mahrattas were to act on the side of Surat, and the rajah of Berar was to invade Bengal.

The latter did not enter with alacrity into the war; his army, it is true, reached the frontiers of Bengal, but too late to enter on action; and the confederacy, fortunately for the English, was but badly cemented. The Bombay army first took the field, passed the Tappee (1780), and entering Guzerat, reduced Dubhoy, and obliged Futy Sing to sign a treaty for excluding the Poonah government. The English army being joined by the troops of the nabob, invested and stormed Amadabad.

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The two Mahratta chiefs, Madajee Scindia and Holkar, took the field, and were in march for Surat, when they were met by General Goddard. That officer received a letter from Mr. Farmer, one of the English hostages, informing him that the Mahrattas were inclined to treat. The English hostages were released; but as it evidently appeared Scindia only wanted the assistance of the English to further his own ambitious views in the Mahratta regency, the treaty soon broke off; General Goddard resolved to force the enemy to an action; which he effected, and completely routed them. The like success attended two of our foraging parties, and in short in every action with the enemy, the British troops were victorious.

On the side of Bengal, the council had concluded a treaty with the rannah or chief of Goad, and that country was instantly attacked by the Mahrattas. Major Popham, with a few men, soon cleared that country, and entered the Mahratta dominions; took the fortrefs of Gualor, hitherto deemed impregnable, and struck the enemy with the greatest consternation.

War between Great Britain and France had commenced in 1778, and soon after advice thereof was received in Bengal, the French settlements at Masulipatam, Carrical, Yaman, and Cherdenagore, were attacked and taken; and as soon as preparations would permit, siege was laid to Pondicherry, which, after a brave defence, was reduced; the European troops sent to Europe, and the native forces were disbanded. Elate with this success, the Madras council turned their attention towards the Guntoor circar. Bazalit Jung, brother of the Nizam, held it of his brother as a jaghire for life, and it was by treaty to fall to the English on his death. To procure immediate possession, they had made ineffectual offers to the Nizam; their next application was to Bazalet, who fearful of the encreasing power

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of Hyder, surrendered it to the Company. This negotiation was conducted equally without the knowledge of the Nizam or the Bengal council; and as soon as ceded, the jaghire was farmed out to the nabob of Arcot. This transaction gave offence both to the Nizam and Hyder.

To support the pretensions to this territory, Colonel Harper was detached, and without any permission being asked, directed his march through part of Hyder's dominions. Hyder ordered the passes to be barricaded against him, and the Colonel found himself obliged to fall back. To soothe the Nizam, a resident was sent to his court. The subah, irritated at the negotiation respecting the Guntoor circar, and the application of the new resident for a remission of tribute for the other four, threatened to join Hyder. But, fortunately, the supreme council of Bengal interfered, disclaimed the conduct of the Madras board, and, to satisfy the Nizam, Mr. Whitehill, the chief, was suspended.

The council of Madras disapproving of Harper's conduct, appointed Colonel Baillie to succeed him; but by their delay, Hyder had time to ravage the circar, and confined Bazalet in his capital.

This conduct, the hatred of the nabob to Hyder, who was constantly irritating the council against him, and an expedition against Mahie, a French settlement on the Malabar coast, near Hyder's dominions; all tended to widen animosities. Hyder considered Mahie as under his protection, and remonstrated against the expedition. However, an enterprise was resolved on; Col. Braithwaite proceeded with rapid exertions, and reduced the fort.

The peace between Hyder and the Mahrattas was soon known to the nabob of the Carnatic, who informed the Madras presidency of it. His known hatred of Hyder rendered his information suspected. The preparations of the enemy were, however, carried on with vigour.

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The nabob, the only ally of the English on that side, was in debt; his troops, for want of pay, was deserting, and his fortresses were badly supplied. This situation afforded an opportunity to Hyder to make an irruption into the Carnatic, and destroy every thing with fire and sword; the frontiers suffered first, and in four days he burned Conjeveram. The inhabitants of every place to which his army came, were sacrificed; the country wasted, forts captured, and towns destroyed.—Mean time, at Madras the council were at variance; at last, Sir Hector Munro took the command of the army. Assistance was applied for to the nabob; but either from inability or other motives, little was obtained. The whole Carnatic was now a scene of devastation; and, on the 21st of August, Hyder sat down before Arcot, the capital of the province.

Colonel Baillie, who with his detachment had marched to the Guntoor circar, was now ordered to return to Madras; his march, from the rains, was rendered very distressing. Munro, to facilitate his retreat, moved for Conjeveram; and on his approach, Hyder raised the siege, but took post so as to prevent a junction with Baillie's forces. The latter found the rivers swelled, and provisions scarce. Hyder now encamped about two miles from Munro's army, and detached his brother-in-law Meer Saib, and his son Tippoo, to attack Col. Baillie. The detachment of the latter, although overwhelmed by numbers, made a brave resistance, and repulsed the enemy, but with the loss of his baggage; and he directly sent a messenger to inform Munro of his situation. That General declining a general action with Hyder, detached Colonel Fletcher with a reinforcement, which, by taking a circuitous march, escaped Hyder, and joined Baillie. Hyder had occupied all the defiles through which Baillie must pass. That officer, as soon as

he received the reinforcement, again began his march; and having entered one of the defiles, a masked battery of twelve guns was opened upon his flank, and soon after fifty pieces of artillery were playing on the English lines. They were surrounded and attacked on all sides, and after a conflict of three hours, had the appearance of victory in their favour, when part of their ammunition blew up. This turned the fortune of the day, and Tippoo seized this opportunity to make a vigorous attack. The carnage of the English forces was dreadful; the seapoys were almost all cut to pieces, and Baillie, much wounded, rallied a few of his troops, and gained an eminence, where, after a desperate defence, all were slain except about two hundred; the Colonel, much wounded, was of the latter number. The enemy suffered so severely, that Hyder found it necessary to retreat, and leave his baggage and wounded behind him.

When the news of this disaster reached Munro's camp, the troops were anxious to be led against the enemy, to revenge the slaughter of their friends; but the weakness of the army obliged the General to restrain their ardour, and retreat to Chingleput, where he was joined by a reinforcement under Colonel Cosby.

On this event, distraction reigned in the council, and confusion and dismay in every part of the country; the seapoys in the Company's service revolted in every place. Dispatches were sent to Bengal for assistance, orders were given to restore the Guntoor circar, and every submissive measure used that could soften the Nizam.

Hyder again sat down before Arcot, and carried on the siege with great spirit. At Bengal, mean time, preparations were made to assist the Carnatic; a large body of Europeans, and a supply in money, were sent; and Sir Eyre Coote dispatched to take the command. In twenty-

three days this reinforcement reached Madras, but Arcot had surrendered.

Sir Eyre Coote, on his arrival, suspended Mr. Whitehill; and as the monsoon season came on, time was allowed to put the Company's affairs on a better footing. The first thing attempted was the relief of Wandewash, which Hyder then besieged. This was effected on the 17th of January, 1781; for on the approach of the English army, Hyder retreated, and afforded Sir Eyre Coote an opportunity to strengthen the other garrisons. Meantime, Sir Edward Hughes, on the Malabar coast, destroyed all Hyder's shipping in the ports of Calicut and Mangalore.

Col. Braithwaite being posted on the banks of the Coleroon for the protection of Tanjore, with a force amounting to two thousand and thirteen men, Hyder dispatched his son Tippoo Saib, accompanied by Monsi. Lally, and four hundred French, to attack him. Tippoo suddenly surrounded him, and on Braithwaite's attempting to retire, an action ensued (Feb. 16), and continued unremittingly for twenty six hours. Col. Braithwaite formed his troops into a square, and defended himself bravely; but at last the troops under Lally forced the square, and a dreadful carnage ensued. A few of the English army only were saved by the generous conduct of M. Lally, and made prisoners.

Sir Eyre Coote having taken the field, and relieved Wandewash, was informed of a French fleet being off Madras, and also that Hyder had taken the important post of Amboor, he marched therefore, and encamped near Pondicherry. Hyder was observed close to our rear, and on Sir Eyre Coote moving to Cuddalore, greatly annoyed him. On the 10th, the English army offered battle to Hyder, which the latter declined. Sir Edward Hughes having taken the fort of Mahie, and destroyed Hyder's fleet in his own ports of Calicut and Mangalore, returned to Madras with reinforcements. Hy-

der, meantime, was not idle. He levied contributions on the Dutch at Negapatam, and the Danes at Tranquebar; plundered the country of Tanjore, and invested Wandewash.

Sir Eyre Coote had hitherto been ill supplied with provisions, but on the return of the fleet, the forts were kept open, and a supply procured: with this and a reinforcement, he made an attempt at Chillumbram, but was repulsed. Elated with this success, Hyder determined to give battle; Monsi. Lally endeavoured to dissuade him, but without effect. On the 1st of July, 1781, the English army formed under a constant cannonade, which the English returned, and forced a large body of the enemy's cavalry to retire. On their retreat, a range of redoubts appeared, which would have prevented the advance of our army; but a road through some sand hills was discovered, through which Sir Eyre Coote marched the troops, and enabled him to come to action. Sir Eyre Coote led on the first line against the first line of the enemy, which immediately gave way. The battle after this was warm, long, and obstinate, but at last ended in a defeat of the enemy; they lost about 3000 men, and the English army about 400.

The army immediately marched to relieve Wandewash, and Tippoo, on its approach, retreated and joined his father. Tripassore fell to the English. Hyder took post on the spot where he had cut off Baillie's detachment, and prepared for a second battle with the English. Sir Eyre Coote, on the 27th of August, marched towards the enemy, and began the attack. Some confusion happened on the side of the English; Hyder drew off his guns without any thing decisive happening, and took the opportunity of the night to retire to a greater distance.

Each party claimed the victory. Sir Eyre Coote again faced the enemy, on the 27th of September, when another battle took place near Chilingur,

lingur, and Hyder under cover of the night retreated. The English army did not pursue, but the General employed his time in making an alliance with the independent Polygars.

Colonel Owen was detached to intercept a convoy from the Mysore country, but not succeeding, incamped at Mydowaddie, when he was soon after joined by the main army; before this junction Hyder had attacked him, but was beat off with a loss to the English of 300 men.

On the 7th of November the army sat down before Chittoor, and soon carried it; but on the 15th, intelligence being received that Hyder had driven an English detachment from Palipet, the army marched thither. Tippoo, meantime, attacked Tripassore, and the General was advancing to its relief

when the rains fell, and rendered the rivers almost impassible. However, they reached Tripassore on the 21st, and found Tippoo had withdrawn his forces. With this movement the campaign ended.

Sir Hector Munro, in conjunction with Sir Edward Hughes, had attacked and taken Negapatam, a Dutch settlement on the coast; after which Sir Edward failed to Trincomale, in the island of Ceylon, which place also fell.

Vellore being besieged, the army began its operations of the year 1782 with marching to its relief. The two armies were in sight, and cannonaded each other, but nothing effectual took place. Coote returned to Madras, and some differences arising between him and Lord Macartney, the army remained in a state of inaction, during which time Col. Braithwaite fell.

[To be continued.]

## DISSERTATION ON THE HINDU'S.

BEING THE THIRD ANNIVERSARY DISCOURSE DELIVERED TO THE ASIATIC SOCIETY, FEB. 2, 1786.

BY SIR W. JONES.

OF all the works which have been published in our own age, or, perhaps, in any other, on the history of the ancient world, and the first population of this habitable globe, that of Mr. Jacob Bryant, whom I name with reverence and affection, has the best claim to the praise of deep erudition ingeniously applied, and new theories happily illustrated by an assemblage of numberless converging rays from a most extensive circumference: it falls, nevertheless, as every human work must fall, short of perfection; and the least satisfactory part of it seems to be that which relates to the derivation of words from Asiatic languages. Etymology has, no doubt, some use in historical researches, but it is a medium of proof so very fallacious, that, where it elucidates one fact,

it obscures a thousand, and more frequently borders on the ridiculous than leads to any solid conclusion: it rarely carries with it any internal power of conviction from a resemblance of sounds or similarity of letters; yet often, where it is wholly unassisted by those advantages, it may be indisputably proved by extrinsic evidence. We know *à posteriori*, that both *fitz* and *hijo*, by the nature of two several dialects, are derived from *filius*; that uncle comes from *avus*, and stranger from *extra*; that *jour* is deducible, through the Italian, from *dies*; and *rossignol* from *luscinia*, or the singer in groves; that *sciuro*, *écureuil*, and squirrel, are compounded of two Greek words descriptive of the animal; which etymologies, though they could not have been demonstrated *à priori*, might serve to confirm, if any such

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confirmation were necessary, the proofs of a connection between the members of one great empire; but, when we derive our hanger, or short pendent sword from the Persian, because ignorant travellers thus mis-spell the word *khanjar*, which in truth means a different weapon; or sandal-wood from the Greek, because we suppose that sandals were sometimes made of it, we gain no ground in proving the affinity of nations, and only weaken arguments, which might otherwise be firmly supported. That Cùsthen, or, as it certainly is written in one ancient dialect, Cùt, and in others, probably, Càs, enters into the composition of many proper names, we may very reasonably believe; and that Algeziras takes its name from the Arabic word for an island, cannot be doubted: but when we are told from Europe, that places and provinces in India were clearly denominated from those words, we cannot but observe, in the first instance, that the town, in which we now are assembled, is properly written and pronounced Calicàrà; that both Càrà and Cùt unquestionably mean places of strength, or, in general, any inclosures; and that Gujarràt is at least as remote from Jezirah in sound as it is in situation.

Another exception (and a third could hardly be discovered by any candid criticism) to the Analysis of Ancient Mythology, is, that the method of reasoning and arrangement of topics adopted in that learned work are not quite agreeable to the title, but almost wholly synthetical; and, though synthesis may be the better mode in pure science, where the principles are undeniable, yet it seems less calculated to give complete satisfaction, in historical disquisitions, where every postulatium will perhaps be refused, and every definition controverted: this may seem a slight objection, but the subject is in itself so interesting, and the full conviction of all reasonable men so desirable, that it may not

be lost labour to discuss the same or a similar theory in a method purely analytical; and, after beginning with facts of general notoriety or undisputed evidence, to investigate such truths as are at first unknown or very imperfectly discerned.

The five principal nations, who have in different ages divided among themselves, as a kind of inheritance, the vast continent of Asia, with the many islands depending on it are the Indians, the Chinese, the Tartars, the Arabs, and the Persians: who they severally were, whence and when they came, where they now are settled, and what advantage a more perfect knowledge of them all may bring to our European world, will be shewn, I trust, in five distinct essays; the last of which will demonstrate the connection or diversity between them, and solve the great problem, whether they had any common origin, and whether that origin was the same which we generally ascribe to them.

I begin with India, not because I find reason to believe it the true centre of population or of knowledge, but, because it is the country which we now inhabit, and from which we may best survey the regions around us; as, in popular language, we speak of the rising sun, and of his progress through the Zodiac, although it had long ago been imagined, and is now demonstrated, that he is himself the centre of our planetary system. Let me here premise, that, in all these enquiries concerning the history of India, I shall confine my researches downwards to the Mohammedan conquests at the beginning of the eleventh century, but extend them upwards, as high as possible, to the earliest authentic records of the human species.

India then, on its most enlarged scale, in which the ancients appear to have understood it, comprises an area of near forty degrees on each side, including a space almost as large as all Europe; being divided

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on the west from Persia by the Arachosian mountains, limited on the east by the Chinese part of the farther peninsula, confined on the north by the wilds of Tartary, and extending to the south as far as the isles of Java. This trapezium, therefore, comprehends the stupendous hills of Potyid or Tibet, the beautiful valley of Cashmir, and all the domains of the old Indocynthians, the countries of Nèpāl and Butānt, Cāmrup or Asam, together with Siam, Ava, Racan, and the bordering kingdoms, as far as the China of the Hindus or Sin of the Arabian geographers; not to mention the whole western peninsula with the celebrated island of Sinhala, or Lion-like men, at its southern extremity. By India, in short, I mean that whole extent of country in which the primitive religion and languages of the Hindus prevail at this day with more or less of their ancient purity, and in which the Nāgarī letters are still used with more or less deviation from their original form.

The Hindus themselves believe their own country, to which they give the vain epithets of Medhyama, or Central, and Punyabhūmi, or the Land of Virtues, to have been the portion of Bharat, one of nine brothers, whose father had the dominion of the whole earth; and they represent the mountains of Himālaya as laying to the north, and, to the west, those of Vindhya, called also Vindian by the Greeks; beyond which the Sindhu runs in several branches to the sea, and meets it nearly opposite to the point of Dwārakā, the celebrated seat of their Shepherd God: in the south-east they place the great river Saravatya; by which they probably mean that of Ava, called also Airāvati, in part of its course, and giving perhaps its ancient name to the gulf of Sabara. This domain of Bharat they consider as the middle of the Jambudwīpa, which the Tibetians also call the land of Zanbu; and the appella-

tion is extremely remarkable; for Jambu is the Sanscrit name of a delicate fruit called Jāman by the Musselmans, and by us rose-apple; but the largest and richest sort is named Amrita, or Immortal; and the Mythologists of Tibet apply the same word to a celestial tree bearing Ambrosial fruit, and adjoining to four vast rocks, from which as many sacred rivers derive their several streams.

The inhabitants of this extensive tract are described by Mr. Lōrd with great exactness, and with a picturesque elegance peculiar to our ancient language: "A people," says he, "presented themselves to mine eyes, clothed in linen garments somewhat low descending, of a gesture and garb, as I may say, maidenly, and well nigh effeminate, of a countenance shy and somewhat estranged, yet smiling out a glozed and bashful familiarity." Mr. Orme, the historian of India, who unites an exquisite taste for every fine art with an accurate knowledge of Asiatic manners, observes, in his elegant preliminary dissertation, that this country has been inhabited from the earliest antiquity by a people, who have no resemblance, either in their figure or manners, with any of the nations contiguous to them; and that, "although conquerors have established themselves at different times in different parts of India, yet the original inhabitants have lost very little of their original character." The ancients, in fact, give a description of them, which our early travellers confirmed, and our own personal knowledge of them nearly verifies; as you will perceive from a passage in the Geographical Poem of Dionysius, which the Analyst of Ancient Mythology has translated with great spirit:

"To th' east a lovely country wide extends,  
"India, whose borders the wide ocean bounds;

' On

"On this the sun, new rising from the  
main,  
"Smiles pleas'd, and sheds his early orient  
beams.  
"Th' inhabitants are swart, and in their  
looks  
"Betray the tints of the dark hyacinth.  
"Various their functions; some the rock  
explore,  
"And from the mine extract the latent  
gold;  
"Some labour at the woof with cunning  
skill,  
"And manufacture linen; others shape  
"And polish iv'ry with the nicest care;  
"Many retire to rivers shoal, and plunge  
"To seek the beryl flaming in its bed,  
"Or glitt'ring diamond. Oft the jasper's  
found  
"Green, but diaphanous; the topaz too,  
"Of ray serene and pleasing; last of all,  
"The lovely amethyst, in which combine  
"All the mild shades of purple. The rich  
soil,  
"Wash'd by a thousand rivers, from all  
sides  
"Pours on the natives wealth without con-  
trol."

Their sources of wealth are still abundant, even after so many revolutions and conquests; in their manufactures of cotton they still surpass all the world; and their features have, most probably, remained unaltered since the time of Dionysius; nor can we reasonably doubt, how degenerate and abased soever the Hindus may now appear, that in some early age they were splendid in arts and arms, happy in government, wise in legislation, and eminent in various knowledge: but, since their civil history beyond the middle of the nineteenth century from the present time is involved in a cloud of fables, we seem to possess only four general media of satisfying our curiosity concerning it; namely, first, their Languages and Letters; secondly, their Philosophy and Religion; thirdly, the actual remains of their old Sculpture and Architecture; and fourthly, the written memorials of their Sciences and Arts.

I. It is much to be lamented, that neither the Greeks who attended Alexander into India, nor those who were long connected with it under the Bactrian Princes, have

left us any means of knowing with accuracy, what vernacular languages they found on their arrival in this Empire. The Mohammedans, we know, heard the people of proper Hindustan, or India on a limited scale, speaking a Bhâshâ, or living tongue, of a very singular construction, the purest dialect of which was current in the districts round Agrâ, and chiefly on the poetical ground of Mat'hurâ; and this is commonly called the idiom of Vraja. Five words in six, perhaps, of this language were derived from the Sanscrit, in which books of religion and science were composed, and which appears to have been formed by an exquisite grammatical arrangement, as the name itself implies, from some unpolished idiom; but the basis of the Hindustânî, particularly the inflexions and regimen of verbs, differed as widely from both those tongues, as Arabic differs from Persian, or German from Greek. Now the general effect of conquest is to leave the current language of the conquered people unchanged, or very little altered, in its ground-work, but to blend with it a considerable number of exotic names both for things and for actions; as it has happened in every country, that I can recollect, where the conquerors have not preserved their own tongue unmixed with that of the natives, like the Turks in Greece, and the Saxons in Britain; and this analogy might induce us to believe, that the pure Hindî, whether of Tartarian or Chaldean origin, was primeval in Upper India, into which the Sanscrit was introduced by conquerors from other kingdoms in some very remote age; for we cannot doubt that the language of the Vêda's was used in the great extent of country which has before been delineated, as long as the religion of Brahmâ has prevailed in it.

The Sanscrit language, whatever be its antiquity, is of a wonderful structure; more perfect than the Greek, more copious than the Latin,

tin, and more exquisitely refined than either, yet bearing to both of them a stronger affinity, both in the roots of verbs and in the forms of grammar, than could possibly have been produced by accident; so strong indeed, that no philologer could examine them all three, without believing them to have sprung from some common source, which, perhaps, no longer exists: there is a similar reason, though not quite so forcible, for supposing that both the Gothic and the Celtic, though blended with a very different idiom, had the same origin with the Sanscrit; and the old Persian might be added to the same family, if this were the place for discussing any question concerning the antiquities of Persia.

The characters, in which the languages of India were originally written, are called Nāgarī, from Nagar, a City, with the word Déva sometimes prefixed, because they are believed to have been taught by the Divinity himself, who prescribed the artificial order of them in a voice from heaven. These letters, with no greater variation in their form by the change of straight lines to curves, or conversely, than the Cufic alphabet has received in its way to India, are still adopted in more than twenty kingdoms and states, from the borders of Cashgar and Khoten, to Rāma's bridge, and from the Sindhu to the river of Si-

am; nor can I help believing, although the polished and elegant Dévanāgarī may not be so ancient as the monumental characters in the caverns of Jarasandha, that the square Chaldaic letters, in which most Hebrew books are copied, were originally the same, or derived from the same prototype, both with the Indian and Arabian characters: that the Phenician, from which the Greek and Roman alphabets were formed by various changes and inversions, had a similar origin, there can be little doubt; and the inscriptions at Canārah, of which you now possess a most accurate copy, seem to be compounded of Nāgarī and Ethiopic letters, which bear a close relation to each other, both in the mode of writing from the left hand, and in the singular manner of connecting the vowels with the consonants. These remarks may favour an opinion entertained by many, that all the symbols of sound, which at first, probably, were only rude outlines of the different organs of speech, had a common origin: the symbols of ideas now used in China and Japan, and formerly, perhaps, in Egypt and Mexico, are quite of a distinct nature; but it is very remarkable, that the order of sounds in the Chinese grammars corresponds nearly with that observed in Tibet, and hardly differs from that which the Hindus consider as the invention of their Gods.

[ *To be continued.* ]

## TO THE EDITORS OF THE LITERARY AND BIOGRAPHICAL MAGAZINE.

GENTLEMEN,

AT a time when some writers wish to revive the long lost age of Chivalry, I think the following curious fragment cannot be unacceptable to your readers.

### PROCÈS VERBAL:

CONTAINING THE DEFIANCE OF THE CHRISTIAN KING AGAINST THE EMPEROR ELECT.

IN the great hall at the palace royal at Paris, by command of the king, a tribunal was erected before the marble table, to which the aforesaid Lord repaired, the tenth day of September, 1528, to hear the

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the Herald at Arms deliver a message from the Prince, calling himself Emperor elect; and the said Lord was attended in the following manner: First, at his right hand was seated in a chair, the most high, excellent, and mighty Prince, the King of Navarre, Duke of Alençon and Berry, Count de Foix and Armagnac. On the same side was seated on a bench my Lord the Duke de Vendomois, peer of France, and governor of Picardy; Don Hercules of Este, eldest son of the Duke of Ferrara; Duke of Chartres and Montargis; the Duke of Albany, regent and governor of the kingdom of Scotland; the Duke de Longueville, great chamberlain: near to whom, on another bench, did sit the presidents and counsellors of the Court of Parliament, and behind them many gentlemen and men of letters. On the other side did sit in separate chairs, the most reverend Cardinal Balviati, legate of our holy father the Pope, and of the holy apostolic see; my Lord the Cardinal de Bourbon, Bishop and Duke de Laon, peer of France; Cardinal de Sens, Chancellor of France; Cardinal de Lorraine, Archbishop of Narbonne; the Ambassadors of the most high, most excellent, and most puissant Prince, the King of Scotland, the most illustrious republic of Venice, of the most illustrious Duke of Milan, of the Lords of the league of Upper Germany, and of the republic of Florence. On another bench sat the Bishop of Transylvania, Ambassador of the most high, and most puissant Prince, the King of Hungary; the Bishop, Duke of Langres, peer of France; the Bishop, Count de Noyon, peer of France; the Archbishop of Lyons, Primate of Gaul; the Archbishop of Bourdeaux, Primate of Aquitaine; the Archbishops of Aix and Rouen; the Bishops of Paris, Meaux, Lisieux, Maçon, Limoges, Vabres, Conserans, and Tarbes; and behind them the Masters of Requests, and

Counsellors of the Grand Council. On one side of the chair of our said Lord was the Sieur de Beaumont, the grand steward and marshal of France, and on the other the Seigneur de Brion, admiral of France, lieutenant-general and governor of Burgundy; and behind the said chair were many knights, of different orders, that is to say, the Count de Laval, lieutenant-general and governor of Bretagne; Seigneur de Montmorenci; Seigneur de Aubigny, captain of an hundred lances, and of the Scotch guard; the Count de Brionne, Ligne, and Roussi; Seigneur de Fleurangs, marshal of France; Seigneur de Ruffey; Seigneur de Genoilhac, grand and master of the artillery of France; Lewis, Lord of Cleves; the Lord de Humieres, and the Count de Carpy. And behind were the Count d'Etampes, provost of Paris, and with him several gentlemen of the King's chamber, and the cup-bearers, esquires, carvers, and other domestic officers, with above two hundred gentlemen of the King's household; and at the entrance of the said tribunal, were the captains of the guards, and provost of the palace; and before the chair of the said King were the sewer of the chamber on one knee, and at the foot of the step of the said tribunal were the provost of the merchants, and the aldermen of the city of Paris; and at the bottom of the hall, the doors of which remained constantly open, there was an infinite number of people. In the presence of whom our said Lord the King declared, that the cause which had moved him to call together this assembly was, that the Emperor elect had sent unto him a Herald at Arms, which, as the said Lord thought, as the herald had declared, and as his safe conduct witnessed, brought unto the said Lord the authentic letters patent for the security of the field in the combat, which was to take place between the said Emperor elect and him. And foras-

much as the said Herald at Arms, under pretence of bringing the said letters patent, might make use of divers fictions, dissimulations, and hypocrisy, to divert and procrastinate the affair; and as the said Lord the King requires brevity and expedition in the said combat, so that notwithstanding the same, an end may be put to the war, which has so long existed between them, to the comfort of Christendom, to avoid the further effusion of blood, and other evils attendant thereof, the said Lord being willing that this should be known to all Christendom, so that every one may judge truly by whom the evils and length of this war are caused. On the other hand, he has called the said assembly to shew unto them, that he has not lightly undertaken this act, for he has right on his side; and had he acted otherwise, his honour would have been greatly wounded, and which the princes of the blood, and others, the subjects of his realm, would have been highly offended at; and that they knowing the reason of the combat, the justice of his cause, may behave themselves as good and loyal subjects ought to do, hoping, with the aid of God, to repair thither, so that it may be clearly seen that he has justice on his side, and that he has been falsely accused of a breach of faith. The kings his predecessors and his ancestors, whose effigies ornament this hall, who in their time have achieved divers glorious acts, and greatly augmented their kingdom, would esteem him unworthy of being their successor, if he should suffer such an imputation on his honour, as the said Emperor elect had cast on him, and should not defend it with his person in the accustomed form and manner. And in order to understand the affair, it is necessary to state, that the said Lord the King was taken by his enemies before Pavia, to none of whom did he plight his faith; thinking that by the magnanimity of the Emperor elect he should be better

treated in Spain, when near him, than elsewhere, he consented to be carried thither, which he was by a fleet of galleys, armed for that purpose; and being arrived in Spain, was imprisoned in the castle of Madrid, where he was guarded night and day by a great number of cross bowmen and others, who offended and disturbed him greatly, so that by the distress in which he was, he became dangerously ill. The Emperor elect visited him, and since his recovery a treaty has been concluded between the deputies of the said Emperor elect and ambassadors sent by Madame mother of the said King, for that purpose, by virtue of the power which the said Lord the King had left his said mother to govern his kingdom, when he went out of it to cross the mountains, and by which she could not bind the person of the said King. So that by an inspection in the said treaty, every one may evidently see that it is unreasonable as well in form as in matter, and extorted by violence; and that no Prince that had been at liberty would have made such a treaty, or have promised such a ransom for his delivery; which treaty our said Lord, who was then a prisoner, was compelled to swear to, contrary to protestations which he had publicly made, he being still very sick, and in danger of death. After which treaty, the said King being still kept under the aforesaid guard, and deprived of liberty, was brought on his way to return to France, having delivered his children as hostages. He was told several times, that when he should be at France at liberty, it was necessary that he should plight his faith; but knowing that what he had done and promised in Spain was null; and even if it is on record, that the said Emperor elect should have said to the said King, that if he did not comply with the contents of the said treaty, he should look on him as guilty of perjury; and even if the said words had been spoken to him, the said

Lord



Lord was not at liberty to reply, nor had he given his assent thereto. Therefore in the present case there are two things to consider; first, the treaty extorted by violence, and made by those who had no power to bind his person, and which, as far as has been accomplished by Madame, the mother of the said King, who has delivered his children as hostages: the other point is a pretended oath of the said Lord; on which no foundation can be laid before he had, by means of the treaty, been set at liberty. For in affairs of war, the oath of a prisoner is not obligatory, unless the person to whom it is plighted puts him in full liberty, so that if he escapes from those who guard him, he cannot be accused of breach of faith; and as they thus kept the said Lord under a strong guard, and have not placed any confidence in his oath, so can they not accuse him, as it is not binding. The ministers of the said Emperor elect have often declared and confessed, that the oath which they had pretended to have received from the said King was null, because he was at liberty only when released, it was necessary he should plight his faith again, which the said Lord never did, but only delivered his children as hostages, which was another gross and vile subjection, tending to shew that they did not respect his oath, nor grant him his full liberty on it. Thus it is necessary to admit, that in an affair of honour and combat there is an assailant and defendant; the assailant guarantees the safety of the field; and the defendant, provoked and assailed, secures himself by arms. For the said Lord the King, having been informed as well by his ambassadors, heralds at arms, and others, that the said Emperor had accused him of breach of faith, and made use of words highly reflecting on his honour, as may be seen by letters sent by the said Emperor elect to the president of Bourdeaux, ambassador

from the said King to the said Emperor. and which the said King caused to be read before the whole assembly, and were to this effect:—

“Mr. Ambassador, I have seen the letter written to me, touching words spoken at Grenada; and also have seen extracts of your process, by which I clearly understand that you will not remember what you was then directed to tell the King of France your master, that you may have an opportunity to alter the said words, agreeable to your own wish, what I then said, after many words which were of no great consequence, and not necessary to repeat, was, that the said King, your master, had basely and wickedly broke the oath which he had taken to me to preserve the treaty at Madrid; and that if he should assert the contrary, I will maintain it in personal combat with him. These are the substance of the words as said by the King, your master, at Grenada; as I believe that they are those which you know, for they are the same that I used to the King, your master, at Madrid, that I should then think him knavish and wicked, if he had broke the oath which he made to me; at the same time telling him, that I should keep mine to him better than he would to me. I write this to you freely, signed with my hand, so as from hence-forward neither you nor any other may entertain any doubt. Given in our city of Madrid, the 18th of March, 1528.” Signed Charles; countersigned Allemand, and addressed to the ambassador of France. Ten days after the date of this letter, in full assembly, as they now are, after having heard the ambassador of the said Emperor elect, who was taking leave to return to his master, and that they were well assured that the said Emperor elect had accused the said King with breach of faith, the said King, for the preservation of his honour, and for the support of truth, had answered the said Emperor elect in writing,

writing, signed by his hand; which letter was sent to Spain by an Herald at Arms, who without any words delivered it into the hands of the said Emperor elect in a full assembly. If the said Emperor elect has since demanded a safe conduct from the said King the said safe conduct has been sent him, but limited only to the safety of the field, and not otherwise. And forasmuch as the said Lord desires, as has been said aforesaid, that this matter may be brought to a quick and expeditious end, for the comfort of Christendom, he neither will nor intends to enter into any further speech or contest which may tend to disguise and prolong the affair. And forasmuch as the said Emperor elect has made his charge, and the said King has made his defence, it only remains that the said Emperor should provide the field, and the said King the arms; and therefore if the said herald does not bring an authentic patent for the safety of the field, and confine himself to the tenor of his safe conduct, the said King does not mean to give him audience; and the said King has commanded that the said herald should be brought before him, which has been done, and he has appeared, dressed in his coat of arms. To the said herald of the Emperor the King said, "Herald, do you bring security for the field, such as an assaiant as your master is, should send to a defendant such as I am?" The herald said, "Sire, will you please to give me leave to do my office?" Then the King said, "Give me the patent of the field, and afterwards I will permit you to say what you will on the part of your master." The herald then began by saying, "The most sacred majesty"—At which words the King interrupted him, saying, "Shew me the patent for the field; for I think the Emperor elect either is or ought to be so gallant a prince, as not to

use so great hypocrisy as to send you without the safety of the field, as I had required it of him: and you also well know, that your safe conduct expresses that you bring the said patent." The herald replied, that he believed he brought such things as ought to content the said King. To which the King answered, "Herald, give me the patent for the field; give me that, and if it is sufficient I accept it; afterwards say all you will." To which the said herald added, that he had command from his master not to give it until he had first declared some things which he had given him in charge. "Then," says the King, "thy master cannot give laws in France; and besides, things are come to that point, that there is no further occasion for words; and he ought to be told, that I did not send any message by my herald to your master, but what I asked of him was in writing, signed by my name, to which no other answer was necessary but the safety of the field, and without which I should not have thought of giving the audience, for you may say things which may be disavowed; and besides, it is not with thee I have to speak or to fight, but with the Emperor elect." The said herald then asked the said King to give him his dismissal and safe conduct to return: this the King granted and said to the herald, "Take the act;" and afterwards requested me, Gilbert Bayart, Seigneur de Neufville, &c. his counsellor, notary, and secretary of state, to form an act, purporting that he had not received the said patent; and, that on its being sent to him as it ought to be, he would not refuse to repair to the combat. This done, he retired to his council chamber. And the said herald having required that copies of the aforesaid proceedings should be delivered to him, this was also granted. Done in the said city of Paris; signed Bayart.

## OBSERVATIONS MADE IN A TOUR THROUGH FRANCE.

BY T. F. HILL.

( *Continued from Page 23.* )

**T**OWARDS the conclusion of the first week of my stay at Paris, the King gave his Veto to the decree against the emigrants; confirming, however, the part relative to the recall of the Princes; and publishing a proclamation at the same time, to persuade the rest to return home. He did not suffer this exertion of his power to be long expected.

This famous Veto appears to me to have been the first marked step of the returning power of the Crown, which I soon after evidently discovered: the first decided evidence of superiority, in the natural struggle between the executive power, and the National Assembly. I doubted its character at first; but I was speedily convinced, that this was the truth. The very remembrance of it constantly seemed to goad the partizans of liberty.

Considered politically, the decree certainly ordained the most prudent measures which could be pursued against the emigrants: since it affected their individual interest, which the evidence of their own mouths, as well as that of natural reason, had informed me, was the most effectual means of disuniting them: and perhaps France may hereafter have reason to repent the adoption of the Veto. Several motives, besides that of immediate advantage in the political struggle, certainly conduced to persuade the King to employ his Veto. He gained time by it: and was thereby enabled to feel the sense of the people, and to obtain new strength in the popular opinion, before the affair was brought to extremities. Farther, a large party in the kingdom, more friendly to the aristocracy, exclaimed against the decree, as tending absolutely to annihilate the order of nobility. "The National Assembly," they cried, are

"never satisfied with despoiling "and oppressing the nobles!" But this their outcry wanted the foundation of solid reason. Private interest would have brought home the majority of the emigrants; and those who would not return, certainly merited the punishment of their self-chosen contumacy! The order of people of rank and fortune, would have by no means been destroyed by it: and farther, others would soon have risen in the room of those who might have been wanting; the loss of a few names could only be lamented by fools and children.

The part of this decree left in force, recalled the Princes home: according to the constitution therefore, if Monsieur did not return, by the appointed term, which happened in the month of January, he lost all claim and right to the contingency of Regency, the same would happen to the Comte d'Artois after a similar period; and also again to his children. I understood from good authority, towards the middle of December, that Monsieur was anxious to return, but was not permitted. According to the maxim stated in the last paragraph except one, self interest is, of all interests, the strongest.

I saw the King and Queen soon after my arrival: both seemed in good health, and good spirits; he appeared fatter, and the Queen even handsomer, than when I had last seen her, six years before. It is true, the life of her Majesty at present, is less harassing and more regular, than that she led formerly. But I could not help concluding from their appearance, that the dignity of royalty was still worth possession, even in France! Their son and daughter are fine children; especially the son.

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The speeches in the National Assembly now began to sound the note of war, both foreign and domestic: so great a Revolution, they said, was never effected without it: though in the former Assembly it had been a frequent subject of boasting, that the Revolution had been performed so peaceably! A member of the Constituent Assembly, towards the conclusion of its existence, had already given the key to these military flourishes.

I attended a session of the National Assembly, on the twentieth of November, for the first time. Their proceedings are so carefully detailed in the public gazettes, that attending them rarely merits the trouble of being confined in a crowd so many hours as their meetings require. The tumult and irregularity of the Assembly is every where famous; and we ourselves as English, esteem it even as imputed honour, that our Houses of Parliament are more orderly. The noise and confusion of the Assembly is certainly blamable: it wastes time, and is open to contempt and ridicule. But are not the long and tedious speeches of our Parliament, full as absurd; spun as they often are, merely to collect the flies of faction, till the weary audience escape like boys out of a school! Spite of tumult, the sittings of the Assembly seldom exceed four or five hours: whilst our Members of Parliament sometimes weary one another for fourteen or fifteen! and frequently extend their sittings to ten or twelve! Even the best speeches of our best speakers are too long: they fatigue attention; and may confuse, but can seldom persuade, at least if addressed to rational beings! One meeting of the National Assembly, during my stay at Paris, extended through the whole night, to the next morning: but it was passed in examinations as a Court of Justice for their own peculiar district; not in listening to the prepared and tedious volubility of avidity or venality.

It certainly deserves to be remarked, that hardly more than a tenth of those who have right or suffrage, the Citoyens actifs, as they are called, voted in the elections of the present Assembly. The aristocrats esteemed this a certain evidence, that far the majority of the nation was averse to the present Government: but it seems to me, they had no sufficient reason to suppose, that all who had not appeared against them, were for them. In England, two thirds of the electors scarcely ever vote; generally not half, even in contested elections. Farther: the institution is new in France; and to all, except the violent, habit is requisite to induce them to use their rights; and many are repressed by a mere natural timidity. If a tenth of the nation, two millions and an half, be violent against them, it follows that they have no hope. From these circumstances indeed it appears, that the present National Assembly was chosen exclusively by the most violent part of the nation: and it is therefore probable, that the Assembly should be, what it is said to be, violently democratic; even more so than its predecessor: I heard this character of it at Coblenz, when it was yet but just assembled.

Corruption had already penetrated the constitution: or rather may be said to have been bred in its vitals. Many of the Members of the present National Assembly, as I am credibly informed, practised the arts of venality, or employed undue influence, to procure their places: in spite of all the precautions provided by the Constitution to prevent this evil. Man is by nature corrupt and venal. In consequence of this original sin, some Members are believed with every probability, to have sullied their hands with the bribes of foreign powers: whilst others have contented themselves with the advantages, which their own King chuses to afford them. One of the most material

material defects of the present system of government in France, is, the prodigious income granted to the King: more excessive even than what we pay to our Monarch; and encumbered with much fewer embarrassments. The French King is allowed near a million and an half sterling yearly! a property amply sufficient to enable him and his Ministers to purchase, even doubly, the majority of the Assembly. Such an extravagant allowance is alone a sufficient defect: but the case is still worse, when a King enjoys an income, not under the control of his people; and worst of all, if he is permitted to hoard an enormous private fortune, as probably will be the consequence, whilst his people groan with debts; increased, perhaps, by his own pretended plan of insolvency, which he forces them to supply! Yet such delinquency, to a cool observer, should surely seem almost impossible to be done or suffered by human nature.

Among the subjects treated in the National Assembly, on the day I visited it, the state of the finances seemed to be the most important: it appeared from the accounts of the committee, that there was a deficiency of nine hundred millions of livres, or about forty millions sterling, since the beginning of the Revolution; and consequently that Government had not received two thirds of the income of the nation, which is calculated at about five hundred millions annually. Such a state of finance appeared tremendous, and no national domains were evidently able to withstand the continuance of such a deficiency. The Assembly resolved to consecrate every Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday, in future, to the regulation of the finances, till it was finished; and the resolve appears among their votes, but its execution is far less apparent. Certainly, however, we, as English, could have no reason to fear that they should be able to pay their national debt, with the domains they

have sequestered: all that can be expected from those funds, must be to withstand the present derangement, and pay the expences of the Revolution. The domains are computed to be worth more than three millions; they have also sold much better than was expected. From this statement, however, I learnt the futility of the ceremony of burning the assignats, of which about three or four millions of livres are committed to the flames every week at Paris, as a sacrifice to popular delusion: posterior resolutions, for the creation of vast quantities of new assignats, have changed this conviction into certainty. Alarming, however, as was this appearance of the state of finance, I felt farther, that civil war, and the invasion of the emigrants, could not be the means to regulate it, but must make it worse, as interest would instantly teach all who were concerned in it; and that the great numbers, whose essential interest is peace, from their concern in the national debts and securities, composed a weighty balance in favour of the present Government, which is in some measure their work. The paper money also, as well as the public funds, since both are equally creatures in a good degree dependent on the existence and prosperity of the National Assembly, must therefore render its possessors one of the most powerful ties to prevent any new rupture in the political body.

In favour of the finances of France however, I was afterwards assured by a member of the National Assembly, and even a Jacobin member, that the finances wanted order alone to be perfectly and easily collected; and that if order was once obtained, there would be no farther deficiency. I hope this assertion was well founded, but I own it ever seemed to me improbable.

I have already mentioned the public brass, consisting principally of bells seized from the destroyed churches and monasteries, and now

converting into pence and half-pence. The colour of the money, made of this metal, resembles that of many of the yellow bronze medals, which have reached us from antiquity: now as the same causes, in

[ *To be continued.* ]

all ages, produce the same effects. it appears to be probable, that these ancient coins also might be made from the metal of statues, and other bronze works, melted for the use of the State in times of public distress.

#### METHOD OF PREPARING OIL COPAL VARNISH.

VARIOUS erroneous methods of preparing the oil copal varnish having been published in divers books, we are peculiarly happy in being able to furnish our readers with the following true and particular process, which has been communicated by a gentleman of undoubted veracity, as well as experience in this branch of knowledge.

Take one pound of gum copal, powdered very fine, and sifted, four ounces of rosin, five ounces of red lead, and five ounces of sugar of lead (*saccharum saturni*). These ingredients, together with one gallon of the purest linseed oil, must be put in an iron or bell metal pot, upon a charcoal fire, and must be kept gently boiling for about four or five hours. After which, the pot is to be removed from over the fire, and after cooling a little, but long before the varnish is quite cold, a gallon of spirit of turpentine must be gradually mixed with it; and immediately after it must be strained through a piece of canvas. It is then put in bottles, and about a month after one gallon more of spirit of turpentine must be mixed with it, and the whole must be strained again; after which it is fit for use, and may be preserved for any length of time.

Notwithstanding, however, the apparent facility of this process, there are several precautions to be attended to in the course of the operation, which must necessarily be mentioned in order to insure success, and to prevent accidents, which may easily happen in conducting this process.

The making of this varnish is attended with a strong and disagreeable

smell; for which reason it will be better to make it in an open place, than in a room or kitchen.

The pot or boiler must be about three or four times larger than the bulk of the ingredients, and it must have a handle by which it may be easily lifted from over the fire.

The fire must be made with charcoal, and must be just sufficient to keep the matter boiling, for which purpose no great fire is required.

During the boiling, the mixture must be stirred continually, or at least every two or three minutes, and towards the latter end, oftener. An iron ladle is very fit for this purpose.

This mixture, throughout the boiling, and especially after having boiled for two or three hours, swells very much; in which case the pot must be instantly removed from over the fire, and the contents must be stirred until the swelling subsides, after which the pot is replaced upon the fire; for if any of the matter boils over, and catches fire, which it is very apt to do, the whole will be destroyed.

In about three hours, or three hours and an half, the ingredients will be entirely dissolved, so that nothing hard can be felt with the ladle amongst the fluid matter in the pot; yet the varnish must boil some time longer, and great care must be had to heat the exact point; for if it be not boiled enough, the varnish, when used, will never dry well; and on the other hand, if it be boiled too much, it will become too brittle, and not of a very good colour. The following method will enable the operator to judge when the varnish has boiled sufficiently. When the ingre-



ingredients are all dissolved, you must begin to try the tenacity of the varnish, by putting the blade of a knife into the pot, and immediately taking it out again, so as to let a small quantity of varnish adhere to it; then applying another knife to it, rub that little quantity of varnish

between the two blades, and soon after separate the knives; and you will find, by repeating this trial very frequently, that when the varnish is done enough, it will draw out into long filaments between the two knives; otherwise it will break short.

## DESCRIPTION OF THE BASTILE.

WITH A BEAUTIFUL VIEW.

THE castle of the Bastile was begun in the reign of Charles V. by Hugh d'Aubriot, mayor of Paris, who laid the first stone of it on the 22d of April, 1370. D'Aubriot was born at Dijon, in Burgundy, of obscure parents; but his merit raised him into great favour with the king. He was, however, accused of heresy; and, being condemned, was shut up in one of the towers of this fortress, which, even at that early period, seems to have been consecrated to the purposes of superstition and revenge. In the beginning of the reign of Charles VI. he was set at liberty by the insurgents called the Maillotins, who wished to place him at their head; but having withdrawn himself in the night time, he fled to Burgundy, where he ended his days in peace.

The Bastile, as planned by d'Aubriot, consisted only of two round towers, one on each side of the road leading into Paris from the suburbs of St. Anthony. They were joined together by a high and strong wall, in the center of which was the gate of the town. Some years after, two other towers were built, opposite to the two first; and under Charles VI. the rest of the towers were added, and joined together by immensely thick walls, measuring in the inside eighty feet above the level of the court. The road was then turned off to the right of the castle; the ancient gates were shut up; a new gate was constructed between two of the towers; and the whole building was enclosed with a broad ditch,

having a counterscarp in masonry nearly thirty-six feet from the bottom. About the middle of the seventeenth century an advanced work was completed, in the modern style of fortification, which was afterwards converted into a garden. The ditch was dry, except during the floods of the Seine, when the water rose in it, but not to any great height. All the other buildings belonging to this fortress were erected occasionally, at different periods.

The tops of the towers, and of the curtains that joined them, were flat, with a parapet wall; and on the towers some pieces of cannon were mounted. The entrances to the towers were secured by double doors of oak, near three inches thick. In each tower was a winding staircase, which descended to a dungeon below, and led to the rooms above it. The roof of the dungeon was about the level of the court, and the floor of it considerably above that of the ditch. Those dungeons were arched, paved, and lined with stone. Most of them had a slit towards the ditch that let in air, and a very small degree of light; but some of them had none. It is said they were intended as places of temporary punishment for prisoners who attempted to make their escape; and it seems, by all the enquiries that could be made, that they were only used on some very particular occasions. Above the dungeons were four stories, containing each a single room. Some rooms, indeed, had a small closet adjoining to them, made in the thickness of the wall.

wall. The three stories were irregular polygons of about eighteen feet diameter, and as many high; the fourth, or the room at the top of the tower, called *la calotte*, was not quite so large, nor so high, and was arched to support the stone roof or platform: some had a ceiling under the arch. The walls were strongly built of stone and mortar. They were near seven English feet thick at the top, and the thickness gradually increased towards the foundation. The rooms had but one window each, with an iron grate, immensely strong, near the surface of the wall without, and another about the center of its thickness. A glass window, made in the manner of a door, opened inward. In some rooms the embrasure of the window came down to the level of the floor; in others there were steps that went up to it, and in many it was high enough to enable a person to walk forward to the window with ease. The windows of the lower story were built half way up with stone and mortar, or had planks fixed to that height on the outward grate to prevent the prisoner from being seen by any one from abroad. The walls were perfectly dry, and, owing to their extreme thickness, persons who had been long confined in the Bastile have declared, that they never found themselves so much incommoded by the cold in winter, or heat in summer, as they imagined they would have been, at the same seasons, in the houses in the town of Paris.

All the rooms, except the dungeons, had a fire-place or stove; and the vents of the chimnies were secured by strong iron grates, placed at certain distances from each other. The walls and the ceilings were plastered and white washed. Some floors were laid with tiles, and others with stone, in the man-

ner of most of the antichambers in Paris.

The furniture of the rooms in general consisted of a small bed, with green serge curtains, a table, an armed chair, a basin and ewer, a large earthen pot to hold water, a bras candlestick, a chamber pot, a night-stool, a tin goblet, a broom, and a tinder-box and matches. For prisoners of high rank there were apartments furnished with greater care. Some were permitted to send for things of their own. Madame de Staal\* informs us that she was allowed to hang her room with tapestry; but, for prisoners in general, the furniture and conveniencies were such as above described.

The doors of the rooms were double, and with as many locks and bars as those that shut the entrances to the towers. Many of the rooms had double ceilings,† one of lath and plaster, and, at some distance over that, another of oak, which supported the tile or stone floor of the room above it.—The stairs were lighted from the courts by narrow windows with iron grates, like those of the rooms.

Different authors, who have written on the Bastile, have mentioned cages of iron for confining prisoners, and instruments for putting them to torture: they have said that rooms were destined to those purposes, and called the rack-room, the cage room; but no such instruments were found, nor any traces of them discovered, either by the persons who examined the place when it was entire, or by the architects who superintended its demolition. The four porters, or turnkeys, that belonged to the Bastile when it was taken, as well as some of their predecessors, who are now living, have been examined, and they all declare that none were ever seen by them, and that they never heard of any prisoner being put to the

\* See Memoires de Madame de Staal.

† See Memoires de Henry Mafes de la Tude, par M. Thierry, Tom. I. p. 46.

the torture there. Yet La Porte,\* in relating the methods that were taken to make him divulge the secrets of the queen his mistress,† says, the commissary took out of his pocket an order which he said was for putting him to the torture, and made him go down into a room, where he shewed him the instruments. Perhaps this barbarous practice may have been privately employed in those times; or perhaps the engines were sent for and displayed to excite terror. This cannot, however, be now decided; but there is no proof of any one having been secretly put to the torture there since the beginning of the reign of Louis XIV.

Such cages, however, though not in the Bastile, were lately to be seen in other places. They are said to have been invented during the cruel reign of Louis XI. by Tristan l'Hermite, a friend and servant worthy of such a master. Boulainvilliers says, that he saw at Chateau Duplessis the *cachot de fer*, wherein the Cardinal de la Balue‡ had been confined. Louis XII. while Duke of Orleans, being taken prisoner at the battle of St. Aubin, was sent to the castle of Bourges, and it is said was some time shut up, during the night, in one of these cages. He referred to what he then suffered when he replied to a nobleman who was more resentful than his master, that "it did not become the King of France to avenge the injuries that had been done to the Duke of Orleans."

A publisher of the Leyden Gazette, who had printed a satire on Louis XIV. was secretly seized in Holland, brought away from thence, and shut up in a cage at Saint Mi-

chel,§ where he died after many years confinement.

The cage of Saint Michel still remains. It is about nine feet long, six broad, and eight high, not of iron, but of strong bars of wood. It stands in the middle of a room, resembling one of those in the Bastile; and, as the prisoner could not possibly escape from thence, it was evidently intended for punishment rather than for security. On some of the bars were figures and landscapes, which are said to have been cut by this unhappy man with his nails. It is believed that his death terminated this species of cruelty, as we know no instance of it since.

The library of the Bastile was founded, as is said, about the beginning of the present century, by a prisoner who had been long confined there, and to have been augmented by some of his successors. It contained about five hundred volumes, of which the prisoners were generally allowed the use; but those who were not indulged with the liberty of going thither, depended on the keepers for the choice of their studies. Few of the books were entire, some prisoners having written in them what was thought improper to be seen by others. If they wrote on the margin it was cut off; but as they sometimes wrote between the lines, many of the volumes were found with whole leaves torn out of them. Some, however, have escaped the vigilance of those whose duty it was to examine them, and are now to be found with notes in the hand-writing of the prisoners.

The establishment and garrison of the Bastile consisted of a governor, the lieutenant du roi, a major,

Q 2

two

\* See Memoires de la Porte, premier valet de chambre de Louis XV.

† Anne of Austria, mother of Louis XIV.

‡ The Cardinal de la Balue, a bold and intriguing priest, had been minister to Louis XI. The king withdrew his confidence from him; his mediocrity was suspected; he was arrested in 1389, and kept eleven years in confinement. He retired to Rome, and under Charles VIII. was sent *legato a latere* to France, after which he returned to Italy, and died there.

§ A convent and prison on a neck of land on the coast of Lower Normandy.

two adjutants, or officers under the major, a surgeon and his assistant, a chaplain, four turnkeys, and a company of invalids, with its usual number of officers, all of whom lodged in the castle; a physician, two priests, who were paid four hundred livres a year each to assist the chaplain in saying masses on Sundays and holidays; a keeper of the records, and a clerk, with a superintendant of the buildings, and an engineer, who lodged abroad.

As the king allowed the governor a certain sum daily for the maintenance of each prisoner, the peo-

ple belonging to the kitchen were hired and paid by him. The established allowances appear to have been, for a prince of the blood 50 livres a day; for a marshall of France 36 livres; a lieutenant general 24 livres; a person of quality, or member of the parliaments, 15 livres; an ordinary judge, a priest, or a person in the finances, 10 livres; a decent citizen 5 livres, and for servants who were arrested or permitted to attend their master, 50 sols. There was likewise an allowance made to the governor for fire, candles, and washing.

## JOURNEY OVER THE DESERTS OF ARABIA.

BY M. PAGES.

[ *Continued from Page 35.* ]

AFTER having at last thoroughly examined the manners and principles of the Arabians, I formed to myself an idea different from that which describes them generally as robbers. Divers circumstances, in which I found myself with my Arabian companions, convinced me of their fidelity, and I could never hear that they robbed one another in the same tribe; on the contrary, it is universally acknowledged that they live most sociably among themselves. They are robbers therefore, but it is from strangers, who are unknown to them: they will refrain from robbing when without the limits of the desert, and when they are in small numbers. A single Arabian will never rob either in cities or inhabited countries; they plunder only when they are collected in a body. This robbery may then be viewed as an incursion, and a consequence of the Arabian prejudice, which considers all people or tribes, foreign to theirs, as enemies, unless they are upon particular terms of friendship. Their robberies in the desert are in consequence of the same erroneous principle. They suspend,

however, their hostilities with respect to strangers, when they sue for a kind of truce with them, by paying a certain rate, by which they are allowed to pass their country in full liberty, or when a stranger is protected or friend to a single member of the nation, who without question represents the whole body, by the fraternity which unites them. Then this friend serves him as a safeguard, and no one among them will disregard it: besides, they are masters and sovereigns of their deserts, and they are enabled to exclude any one from a passage; whereas they only require a tribute, proportionable to the quantity of goods which are to be transported over their territory. This tribute may be looked upon as a custom, of which the individual, who here represents the nation, has an equal right either to receive the profit, or to exempt the passenger.

This private privilege for the exemption of tributes is so firmly established and well known, that travellers take generally an Arabian as a safeguard with them among his nation; with this precaution they run no risk: but those who are unacquainted with these customs, or those

those that are robbed, judge from thence that the whole nation is composed of robbers.

Notwithstanding the disagreeableness of this country, it appeared to me that those who were used to it, indemnified themselves by the pleasure which they enjoy in independence and fraternity; and I own that I never experienced more than I did here and in the wildernesses of America, the sweets of that liberty, which the Creator has dispensed to us, and from which we are debarred in towns and cultivated countries, by the habits of distinction and profusion. One single cloth, which the Arabian transports wherever he goes, protects him and his family from rain and sun; and his robe, untouched by scissars, fuller than that which painters use to give to St. John the Baptist, covers his body as much as is necessary. He is the weaver, and therefore not in need of foreign assistance. All the ground he sees about him is his, and without confining himself within any limits, he shares with his brethren the produce of the flocks. Nothing obstructs his motions; he can direct them where he pleases. In a polished country, each limb of his body would have been muffled up and confined by dress, the acquisition whereof would have cost him a thousand cares, when its possession would at most have flattered his vanity, and each step would have subjected him to regulations and customs, often repugnant to common sense and nature. I confess that in spite of the dryness of those deserts, that liberty and absolute equality, peculiar to the Arabians, excited within me an agreeable and involuntary impression, which made me sensible of its whole value. Still they are not deprived of all pleasure besides that of liberty; they draw from the milk of their flocks many well-tasted dishes, which are unknown among us. They also delight in divers exer-

cises, and no where have I seen better runners. Their dances are very agreeable, and they addit themselves particularly to such as represent their combats, lance in hand, with an incredible dexterity. I had seen the same dances in use among the Bissayas and Javans, who like the Arabs are armed with bucklers. The women have also their dances, either of the jovial or voluptuous kind: they are extremely expressive in the latter. As these dances require the sentiment to be expressed in their eyes and countenance, and to agree with the motions of their body, it is necessary that they should always put their imagination in a previous fermentation. The Spanish *sandango*, and the American *calenda*, which the Spaniards and the negroes of Guinea and Angola have learned from their neighbours the Arabians, are an imperfect image of them.

The Arabians make with their wools, tunics and carpets, which might do honour to our own manufacturers. Their goat-skins are employed in the making of bottles, or what go by this name, and tubs for watering their cattle. The exchange of their cattle, with which they would otherwise be overburthened, supplies them with the necessary cloathing, with dates or grain, which they purchase from cultivated countries. Some among them cultivate the parts of such inhabited lands, adjacent to the Euphrates, as are susceptible of labour. After having sown, they abandon them, and do not return till harvest. It is very curious to see a tribe in march. A multitude of flocks then covers the desert, and yields a prospect agreeably variegated: some camels are loaded with tents, baggage, and fowls, which come and perch at the first motion of the encampment; other camels carry animals deprived of the faculty of traveling, and which, by their cries, mark their stupefaction at their new situation. Women and children are upon

upon other camels; you may hear their promiscuous and shrill cries confounded with those of a multitude of animals of different ages and species. The trouble of the women is not small amidst their little children, of which some are fighting, others leaping or crying by their sides: other women again are busy in spinning on their camels, or in grinding meal with their hand-mills. Amidst this tumult you see rising a forest of lances from eight to ten feet long, and hear the masculine voice of the men, who are partly employed in promoting order, partly in surrounding and forming the bulwarks of this ambulating city. But I return to our journey.

We were desirous to continue our road through the middle of the desert, whose dryness secured our march, and kept us at a distance from the encampment of other tribes: but the Arabians of this encampment assured us that we should find no water, and it was resolved that we should take the road which would bring us near the Euphrates. The next morning we went, at day-break, to get water at the wells of the encampment, where I met with the same apathy on the part of the inhabitants. They never went abroad but for their wants, and to milk their cattle, which is the function of the females. The whole caravan filled their bottles with the same tranquillity as if each had been alone in that desert. I remarked in particular, that though I was the only one in the troop mounted on a camel, and dressed somewhat differently from the rest, there were two or three children only by whom I was taken notice of. Some got ready to conduct their flocks to pasture, others filled their bottles, and others, after having milked their goats, called in their family to the repast with as much unconcernedness as if they had been alone in their tents. The women, however, covered a little of

their faces when they appeared without their tents.

After we had supplied ourselves with water, we made the best of our way, taking our course a little more to the north west. Four days after we found a castle abandoned, with three towers, situated near a little lake. Here we got some water, which, however, was extremely bitter, and much corrupted. Curiosity and thirst led me to this lake and to the castle. I saw some green reeds agitated by the wind, and a small piece of water, which was a phenomenon in that country. This prospect charmed me. I approached, but instead of the luxurious place which I had described to my fancy, I only found a moist soil, and that even somewhat marshy, whose water was stagnated, corrupted by heat, and stained with an iron and lead colour, bright in some parts, and dark in others; but upon the whole, the marsh exhaled a pestiferous smell. I then went to a place where there was a quantity of water, thinking it might be better. It was likewise dark coloured, and the aspect of the reeds that were stained in it, soon put an end to my hopes. I tried however to taste some, but it seemed so stinking and bitter, that I withdrew, sick and disappointed. The castle stood not far from the lake, on an artificial eminence of about twenty feet. I ascended it, to seek for the entrance: I found it so low, that I thought I had mistaken it; it was not higher than two feet and an half, and half that dimension in breadth. The wall was thick, and constructed of earth; I entered, and found a large court. In three of its corners stood as many towers, whose gates were still lower than that by which I had entered: they did not invite me to enter them. The walls were very high. I went up, and remarked, that instead of a parapet, they had bent the top of the wall in such a manner, that its foot appeared from the top. They had also given to the parapets  
between



between the towers a circular form, to add to their defence. After this I surveyed the land round the castle. Its environs reminded me of the description I had read of this country in some Arabian tales. A profound silence; the breath of a scorching wind, arising from the heat of the day, which drew to a conclusion; a plain of an uniform grey, similar to that of ash, which seemed also to proclaim its heat; a prospect which was bounded by the horizon, whose grey, forlorn, and mournful atmosphere, offered no other remarkable object but the sun, pale and reddish at the moment of its setting; in a word, all conspired to strike an awe. I descended from this mournful abode, and rejoined my companions.

We continued our road next day, and after two days march, we once more got water at some wells, where we found four tents, the women from which came to mend our bot-

tles. The day following I had like to have broken my neck, having fallen from my camel, when it rose for departure.

The third day after we left the wells, where we had found the four tents, we saw, towards the evening, twelve Arabians with camels. The chief of our caravan, conscious perhaps of the smallness of their number, sent after them. They were driven away by firing at them, and they left on the field of battle some linen, goat-skin bottles, and clubs. I could not in my mind approve of this action; and conjecturing that twelve men were not alone in those parts, I dreaded the consequences of this act of hostility. I compared the precaution with which some days before we had viewed the Arabian camp, where we were the weaker, to our boldness at the sight of a handful of people, who were almost unarmed. This proceeding I could not deem at all generous.

[To be continued.]

## ACCOUNT OF ATCHEEN, IN THE ISLAND OF SUMATRA.

BY THOMAS FORREST, ESQ.

THE kingdom of Atcheen, called Achè by the natives, extends from the north west promontory of the island Sumatra (called Atcheen Head, a well-known and bold land-fall for ships) to beyond Batoo Bara River, on the north side of the island. On the south-west coast it extends to Baroos,\* once possessed, but now abandoned, by the Dutch.

Formerly it certainly extended much farther on this side; as we find, in 1619, Commodore Beaulieu got a permit from the king to load pepper at Ticoo,† lying some miles south of the equator. Inland, the kingdom extends not so far as on either side of the island; and terminates at Sinkel, where the Batta‡ dominion begins. It contains altogether an area of about 26,000

\* Behind an island off Baroos, called Pulo Carang (Stony Island), there is good shelter in ten fathoms, mud; the inner end of the island, which must be left on the left hand going in, bearing west, and the cascade on Mazular (very remarkable, about 400 feet high) bearing S. E. by S. † S. After sunset, but before dark, many large bats go from this island to the main land. They return early in the morning, and sleep all day, hanging to trees by their hooked wings.

‡ Behind the Ticoo Islands, and behind the Priaman Islands, there is also shelter against N. W. and W. winds, for ships of any size. They are small, low, and covered with trees.

§ The Battas are a well-meaning, ignorant, simple people. The Malays and Atcheeners have the address to persuade them that they settle at the mouths of their rivers to defend them from invasion (from white men especially); whereas, it is to enjoy the monopoly of the camphire and benjamin, which they gather near Sinkel River, Baroos, and

26,000 square miles, lying in a triangular shape; and is sheltered by a range of hills that runs from the head or promontory to the south-east, and another to the E N E; the lands between being very fertile, and much better inhabited than any other equal portion of the island.

The king's revenue arises chiefly from import and export duty, and may be about 30000 l. a year. He has also a small acknowledgment of rice from the land in general; and has besides, the rents of royal domains, which are but trifling.

His nobles draw a revenue from their respective districts, of which they are feudal lords, levied on the land and the industry of the inhabitants.

They manufacture from cotton of their own growth a species of cloth, chequered blue and white, which the better sort wear universally for drawers, whilst the common people wear coarse Madras long cloth unbleached. They also make a species of silk, very handsome and very dear, compared with the slighter taffetas of Bengal, of which they buy large quantities from the country ships that import that article. They also cast excellent small brass guns, called rantacka; and are curious in fillagree work, both in gold and silver.

Being at Atcheen in 1762, I enquired particularly of a Jew linguist, named Abraham, why the Orankayos (men of rank and sub-

stance) were not allowed to trade freely, as they did many years before. He said the kings of Atcheen had always lived on very bad terms with the Orankayos who got rich by trade; and, to lessen their consequence, his minister advised him to be sole trader himself; which counsel he imprudently followed, and by that means has impoverished his kingdom in general, that makes no figure at present to what it did formerly. It is true, in trading with the prince's minister, whom they called Shabander (a word they adopt from the Dutch, of, I believe, Spanish origin), they pay no duty in or out. What then? whilst the captain or supercargo can deal only with one person, he must submit to his price. This mode, however, has its convenience, as already hinted at; and, if the king's terms are too hard, the ship can go elsewhere. The king monopolizes the gross sale of all the opium, and farms the retail sale of it also, all over his dominions: much is sold at Nalaboo, of which place more will be said.

Here, at Atcheen, is a profusion of all tropical fruits, especially mangustines, rambustines, mangoes, jacks, durians, lances, pine-apples, limes, and oranges; and the worst kind of bread fruit. Of vegetables they have bredy, a kind of spinach; lobucks (the Spanish radish); large purple brinjalles, yams both red and white, and the St. Helena yam called clody; and many different sorts of beans, like what we call French

and Tappanooly. What Mr. Marsden says of the Battas being cannibals, I have great reason to believe.

Trading once at Sinkel for benjamin and camphire, with Babamallum, a reputable Malayman, I purchased from him a Batta slave, who spoke good Malay; I named him Cato. In the many conversations I had with Cato about his countrymen, I beg leave to relate one short story he told me, which may be called the progress of cannibalism.

Babamallum had a favourite wife or concubine stolen from him by a Batta, who sold her. The thief was taken, and executed according to the Batta law for such a crime; that is, he was tied to a stake, and cut to pieces by numberless swords. They roasted pieces of him on the fire; and Babamallum, a civilized Mahometan, put a bit of his roasted flesh into his mouth, bit it with anger, then spit it on the ground.

I dare say Cato did not invent the above: had he said Babamallum ate it as food, seasoned, with salt and lime juice, as did the executioners, I should not have believed him.

French beans (kalavances); also a small kind of onion. The mangoes have a thin stone, and are excellent; not stringy, as often at Madras. The Chulias, for sea use, lay in here a great provision of salted limes, of which they can buy 2 for a petis, or 10 or 1200 for a dollar, \* Bullocks 12 dollars a head; ducks, 6 for a dollar; fowls, 8 or 10.

The Chulia Cling or Moorish vessels come yearly from Portofino, on the coast of Coromandel, and other places, to the number of 12 or 15 sail of snows, generally of 200 and 300 tons. They come in August and September, and return in February, March, and April, during the fine weather; a Moorish ship comes also annually from Surat.

They bring piece goods of all kinds, chiefly long cloth, white and blue; chintz, with dark grounds; and a great deal of coarse long cloth unbleached.† They ballast with salt. During their stay they lie in a smooth road made by the islands that lie off Atcheen Head, keeping off the S.W. wind and swell. During the N.E. monsoon, the swell from that quarter is inconsiderable, and the weather is fine.

These people, often called Malabars, because they speak that language as at Madras, have their privileges, and no doubt stretch them to the utmost. On their arrival they immediately build, by contract with the natives, houses of bamboo, like what in China at Wampo is called bankshall; very regular, on a convenient spot close to the river, to which their large boats of 8 or 10

tons burden have easy access. These boats being too large to hoist in, they tow them over from Coromandel. This spot is railed in and shut at night for fear of thieves.

After the usual presents are made, the king's officers attend duly at the landing of goods. The bales are immediately opened; twelve in the hundred are taken out for king's duty, and the remainder being marked with a certain mark (*chapp*) may be carried where the owner pleases, and sold in any part of the king's dominions. The Chulias at Atcheen sell at leisure, shewing their goods to the natives in as dark a part of their shop as they can. I have bought at Atcheen, in 1772, of Possally, the king's merchant, blue cloth, as cheap as it was to be had at Madras. This is owing to the Cling Telinga people laying in their investment with leisure, care, and frugality. No European, English, French, or Portuguese, can sell near so cheap as they. Chulia vessels pay also port duties.

Talking of the king they call him Tuan-kito, which compound Malay word means my master. There are five great officers of state, who are named Maha Rajah, Luxamana, Rajah Ooda, Ooloo Balang and Parka Rajah. Under these are sixteen inferior officers. The government is monarchical and often despotic,‡ according to the abilities of the reigning prince.

The exchange of the lead petis rises and falls from 250 to 270 for a rupee, and 600 to 650 for a Spanish dollar, as has been said. The king calls in these petis (cash) some-

\* West India captains of ships might here take a hint, as limes rot under the hedges in the West India islands. The Chulias make four or five incisions long ways into the ripe lime, and put into each a little salt; after lying forty-eight hours or more, they with the hand give each lime a squeeze, then lay them to dry in the sun for several days; they expose the extracted juice also, that all the watery particles may be exhaled. They then put up the limes in jars, pour back the juice upon them, and fill up with more juice, or good vinegar, often had from the coco-nut tree. The lime thus preserved they call Atchar. This given on board ship, with less salt meat, would save many a poor sailor's life.

† Which they call Cain Gadjaw (elephant cloth), as being coarse: in London we call very large paper, elephant.

‡ See Mr. Mariden's account of Sumatra.

sometimes, and issues new ones with a great profit to himself. The legal interest of money is 25 per cent. per annum.

They have a gold coin called *massiah*,\* of the size of our sixpence, stamped with Arabic characters: but they are not nearly equal to what they pass for current, being very thin. The Chulias export nothing but gold dust and dollars, of what may be called valuables; sometimes they pick up a few stray rupees and fanams; but they always get filled up with what in India is called a *gruff* (bulky) cargo—areka (beetle nut), redwood, gum benjamin, Sinkel, or Barroos camphire, which, if clear and transparent, is nearly equal to its weight in silver, in China. I had a pecul once sold by Mr. Cox, my agent there, for 1650 Spanish dollars: it is also valuable on Coromandel, being bought by Gentoos for some particular purpose. They also export from Atcheen, pepper, sugar, sulphur, which is found on Pulo Way, a conical high island, 4 or 5 leagues from the river's mouth, once a volcano, and elsewhere; Japan wood; dammer, a kind of rosin: rattans,

patch-leaf, bang,† which is hemp leaves, and when smoked intoxicates. They also export many other articles, which European country captains know nothing of. On all these they pay an export duty, unless immediately bought from the king's merchant. Notwithstanding which, these industrious Chulias and Malabars (the appellations are, I believe, synonymous) bustle about amongst the natives, speak their language‡ (which is not Malay, though to a man the Atcheeners understand Malay), give credit for their produce, and by their diligence and management make the trade answer. Possibly, the king's merchant and prime minister, is a Chulia man, and all the clerks or men of business about him are his countrymen. They write on palm leaves as well as paper, are very shrewd, and full as good accountants as the Conocoplys at Madras, and keep their accounts in the same way.

Many of these Chulias live at Queda, and, no doubt, by this time, at Pulo Pinang, which is a beautiful, healthy, and fruitful island: I was on it many years ago, before it was settled by the English.

[ *To be continued.* ]

## ON THE CHARACTER AND MEMOIRS OF SULLY.\*

BY THE MARQUIS D'ARGENSON.

I May boast of having made known the merit of Sully, to many people who did not before sufficiently esteem this Minister of Henry IV. His memoirs have been written under the title of *Economies Royales*, by four of his Secretaries, whom he

had retained after his retreat, and who made a part of his numerous court. Although these memoirs contain excellent things, which make us understand how great a part Sully had in the glory and happiness of the reign of Henry IV. they are

\* Five *massiah* is equal to a *mayan*, and sixteen *mayan* to a *boncal*, which weighs 1 ounce, 10 pennyweights, and 21 grains, troy. Five *tayl*, an imaginary weight, is also a *boncal*. Twenty *boncal* is a *catty*, 100 *cattys* make an Atcheen *pecul*, and 3 *peculs* make a *bahar*; sixty-six *cattys* make a China *pecul*. At Nalaboo the *boncal* weighs 17 *mayan*. A *boncal* of clear gold is worth 25 Spanish dollars, or about 58 or 60 rupees. In delivering pepper, they use a square measure called *nelly*, which contains a certain weight or number of *cattys*; and in delivering beetle-nut, a certain measure is supposed to contain a *laxfaa*, or 10,000: a *chupa* is about a quart; 16 *chupas* make a *nelly*.

† *Lascars* often smoke bang by stealth; it makes them drunk: country captains always endeavour to prevent it.

‡ The *Dubashes* at Madras study English, to save young writers the trouble of learning the country language: not so in Bengal.

are badly written, are incoherent, and charged with disagreeable calculations and details. An edition in folio which is V. V. Verts, is particularly esteemed, because there are in it some anecdotes of particular families, who desired afterwards they might be suppressed. I engaged, at least indirectly, a man of sense, and who writes well, to digest the memoirs of Sully, and to render them more pleasant to read. I am persuaded, that when this great man shall be better known, people in general will be as enthusiastic as I am, in their admiration of them. I am become passionately fond of him; I have got his portrait framed, and have placed it before my secretaire, to have it continually before my eyes, in order to call to mind his features, principles and conduct. I approve of the noble and simple manner in which he made his fortune, by the best of all means: by serving well his master he could not fail of pleasing him; by pleasing him he deserved to obtain considerable gratuities, but he never sucked the blood of the people: he never received any thing from foreigners to betray his prince and country. It cannot be said that a man who contrived to save his king thirty-six millions of livres out of his treasures made depredations upon the finances. I even admire his retreat; it was as great and noble as the means by which he made his fortune: he had a numerous family, lived in his castles like a prince, was respected by his relations, and gave subsistence to those who became old in his service. I see nothing in all this but what is highly praise worthy. It was just that he should make a figure according to the titles he had acquired by having deserved them: he remembered the good he had done, and wished still to serve the state; but he did not wish to be harrassed with the cares of it. A Minister out of place is no longer stunned with the buz-

zing of flatterers, who strive to persuade him to grant unjust favours: but he judges calmly and in peace the conduct of his successors, and of the good or bad success with which their measures are attended. He is no longer before the curtain; but if he remains in his country, the theatre is not at so great a distance from him as to prevent his deciding upon the merit of the actors.

I even like the manner in which, politically speaking, Sully understood his religion: he was a Calvinist, and without doubt, he was so from conviction; but very far from being either a fanatic or rebel—even after the death of Henry IV. he refused to put himself at the head of the Huguenot party, as soon as a revolt became in question. It was not required of him to sacrifice his opinion in matter of faith; and on his part, he never made his manner of thinking a pretext to disturb the public repose. His first profession was that of a soldier and engineer, and the first sciences he studied were those of war, gunnery, and fortification. He learnt them well, and in the exercise of them he never lost that coolness and combination which are equally necessary in war, and in the administration of affairs. It was undoubtedly a long time before he suspected that he was destined to be a Minister of State and Superintendent of Finances. But let us not deceive ourselves in thinking that political principles require much study; when a man has a turn for great affairs, he soon surpasses his masters in this kind of study: moreover he obtains a perfect knowledge of them by practice. With respect to the administration of finances, it is a matter of calculation; it is necessary to form a plan, and it soon appears whether or not profit will arise from pursuing it. A financier must not be daunted by the multiplicity of branches which he has to make fruitful.—When he has found a central point, it is the

business of clerks to combine these proceedings with the principles of the Minister; but they must be constant and invariable, and have been formed before he entered into place; for it is too late to tamper when once he is charged with the most important administration.

M. de Sully has been reproached with being too severe; but who knows if he were so by character, or by a kind of necessity, which the conduct of his master Henry imposed upon him? This Prince, the best who ever lived, was weak, often in love, accustomed moreover to seek expedients and resources, such as are found in the midst of civil wars, and to recompense his partisans, by giving them the spoils of his enemies. If Sully had left him to act he would have done more harm to his affairs than his Minister could have done good; but it was very necessary that Sully should be negative, because Henry IV. was generous, and that his generosity stood in need of being kept within bounds. In matters of bounty, the King and the Minister should always understand each other, that either one or the other may appear difficult; according to the natural order of things, the master should be so; but when he will not, the Minister is indispensably obliged to put on that character. The best means of diminishing the embarrassments of both, is to agree upon certain principles never to be departed from; for if once either the King or the Minister countervail them, they will be importuned for the most unjust gratifications, and will make themselves enemies by the most reasonable refusals.

The character of M. de Sully was something like that of Cato; but we need only read his memoirs to be persuaded, that his Catonian firmness was founded upon the real interests of the state, and that neither humour nor malice had any thing to do with it. It even appears

that he was a man of feeling, and several articles in his memoirs prove it. We have reason to believe that his anecdotes are true, because they were not contradicted by any cotemporary author; consequently we ought to believe what he says of himself; part of it is as follows: he believed that it was better to gain the esteem of little people, and to console them, than to be complaisant to the great: he knew that these frequently abuse the attentions which are paid them, and that the suffrages and applause of the former are the real foundation of the reputation and satisfaction of a good Minister.

He studied but very little during his military or political life: he read in his retreat, but it was not, said he, so much to store his mind as to improve his reason. He protected and rewarded men of letters, but they had very little access to him; he listened to every advice which was given him, but he looked upon no particular one as an infallible inspiration, and did not adopt it till after mature reflection. How could he, who had so frequently resisted the orders of his master, submit himself blindly to those of others? He introduced the greatest order into his private affairs; he said, that the manner in which a Minister conducts his own affairs, shews how he will conduct those of his master. In fact, although a man charged with the affairs of state may have but little time to think of domestic details, he may always lay down certain principles for the government of his house and private affairs, as well as for the objects which are interesting to the nation, and consign the one to his stewards as he does the other to his secretaries and clerks. There are none but little minds which trouble themselves with minutiae; great geniuses adopt just and clear principles, and regulate their actions accordingly.



## REVIEW OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

## FOREIGN.

CONSTITUTIONS DES PRINCIPAUX ETATS, &c. or, *The Constitutions of the Principal States of Europe; and of the United States of America.* By M. de la Croix, *Professor of Common Law.* Vol. III. 8vo. Paris. 1791.

**I**N our Magazine for February we noticed the two first volumes of this work, and have now the third before us, which consists of twelve discourses, treating of the constitutions of Switzerland, Sardinia, Savoy, Piedmont, Naples, Sicily, Spain, Portugal, and the new constitutions of Poland and France.

The plan of this, is much the same as the two former volumes; the two first discourses treat of the constitution of Switzerland—Constitutions of the Grisons, of Valais, and of Geneva—Constitutions of Sardinia, Savoy, and Piedmont—The origin of the constitution of Naples, and of Sicily—Constitution of Spain—of Portugal—the new constitution of Poland—the French constitution—the royal acceptance.

From the ample account given of the former volumes, our readers have already been made acquainted with the nature and execution of the work before us. There is nothing in the present volume which will induce them to alter their opinion of the merits of the undertaking. M. de la Croix continues to take some distinguished historian as his guide; to give a concise view of the political history of each government; to trace the circumstances which led to the formation of their different constitutions; and to intermix some observations favourable to the liberty of mankind, and encouraging or monitory to his countrymen. We shall, therefore, without farther introduction or previous comments of our own, proceed to lay before our readers a few extracts from such

parts of the work, as seem most deserving of their notice; by being most illustrative of the author's plan, and of the general tenor of his sentiments.

As, in the preceding volumes, it was not difficult to perceive that our philosopher did not fully approve every article in the new constitution of France; so it is too apparent, from several passages in this volume, that he begins to draw an unfavourable omen from the present troubles, and to doubt whether the virtue of his countrymen be equal to the purity of the government intended to make them happy. Speaking of the pains taken in composing those discourses which have not been publicly pronounced, he says—

I continually thought that I was addressing a great nation, which would condescend to hear me when I treated of governments foreign to their own. It has sometimes been consolatory to myself to take refuge, even in thought, among other nations; and to escape the confusion and dissensions that agitate my country. What gloomy days have obscured this third year of liberty! To what animosities has it not been witness! Of what cruel projects has it not been the parent! Wretched people! In the course of your destiny, you merely change your evils! Happiness itself cannot content you! Your passions, which, if they were of the generous kind, would purify and reform, too often precipitate you the deeper into corruption! Intrigues and low jealousies have found their way to the meanest class of the people! The vices of the great are become the vices of the multitude!

The following passage plainly manifests that M. de la Croix viewed his successors, the present National Assembly, with a suspicious eye.

Legislators, who succeed to the most important Assembly that has ever appeared, since the creation of the monarchy, take care how you shake the authority that has been consolidated by law; the universal respect for which will, in that case, ensure your ruin. Your predecessors had the people for them, you will have them against you,

you, if you dare to change the limits which separate your powers from those of the monarch. So long as he shall make the *lex* his rule, he will be more powerful than you: should he transgress, you will become more potent than him. Transient representatives of the people! be not deceived, nor think yourselves superior to the perpetual representative. Be not deceived; a spirit of censure will attend all your discourses, follow your labours, and inspect all your projects. You are not to aim at the excesses of enthusiasm which animated your predecessors. Obstacles are removed; generous efforts are no longer requisite; nothing more is expected than that you continue firm in the path of the laws. Deeds of heroism are not in your province: but what is still better, plans of wisdom are committed to your superintendence. Be steady then in the posture adapted to your new station. Neither presume too much on your own wisdom; nor be too highly elated with your former patriotism.

In a similar strain of pathetic eloquence, M. de la Croix clearly indicates his fears, that the national character of his countrymen are not prepared for the purity of their new constitution: but whatever may be the fate of his country, we sincerely wish that the following sage advice may be properly weighed by those to whom it is addressed.

Despots, monarchs, stadtholders, senators, magistrates, why do you tremble? This is the brightest moment of your glory. Do not wait until the people shall demand what is just, do it from the impulse of your own minds. Instead of combining to destroy our constitution, select from it all that may conduce to the good of your subjects. You will become more powerful from their gratitude, than you are now from the terror of your arms: it will be less difficult to govern by love, than by fear.

The two first discourses treat of the constitutions of Switzerland, of the Grisons, of Valais, and of Geneva. The liberation of Switzerland from the tyranny of its oppressors; the gradual manner in which the confederation was formed; the laws by which it is kept united; the rights and privileges of each canton; their different forms of government; the natural strength derived from their situation, and their military force, &c. are traced with much attention

and seeming accuracy. The author gives a minute account of the government of Berne, as being the most complete model of an aristocratic form; and of Glaris, as being the most democratic: but to enter into particulars, would be to transcribe the whole. Speaking of the many difficulties that were to be surmounted, before the confederation could be formed on a solid base, he observes, that

The most formidable enemy which it had to encounter was *intolerance*. Three religious wars have armed the inhabitants of this country. If the last had not turned to the advantage of the Protestants, and brought on the treaty of peace known by the name of Daran, the Catholics, who were conquerors in the two former, had probably sacrificed to their implacable fury all those whom the simple morality of Zuinglius had separated from the see of Rome. We must not dissemble; of all religions, there is none that has preached up charity and self-government more than ours, and which, at the same time, has manifested greater cruelty of disposition. Its precepts claim our adoration: but woe to the man who forms his judgment of it simply from the actions that screen themselves under its name.

Among other peculiarities relative to the constitution of the Grisons, our author mentions that they pay no taxes; and he takes occasion, from this circumstance, to make the following observations:

Man frequently resembles a child, on whom violence must be committed in order to make him happy. It is true the Grisons are exempted from taxes: but the state is also destitute of funds for public works—for public roads: it has no magazines, no repositories for grain, which are so necessary in a country that produces so little. Those are truly free, whose wills are enlightened; who, observing that life is a long path which successive generations are to tread, extirpate the reeds; disseminate flowers; make all those productions flourish which nature presents to industry; multiply picturesque scenes, and appoint resting-places to alleviate the fatigues of the journey. The tribute paid by the citizen to the public cause, if well administered, is converted into his own personal advantage. It embellishes his country, reanimates the arts, protects from calamities, soothes human misery, or banishes it from

his

his sight. Inhabitants of the earth, you will not pay taxes? Renounce, then, the comforts of life; rest contented with the badness of your roads, with wretched huts, with coarse food, and with your wild and rustic dances; with misery as your only security; and with death as your only release from disease. The light of improved reason would be extinguished. Your children would be as free as the beasts of the forest, and would soon become as brutal.

In treating of the republic of Geneva, the author presents us with a circumstantial detail of its constitution; and he proves, to our satisfaction at least, that the many troubles which have so long and so frequently distracted that small community, necessarily arise from the essential defects observable in its form of government. Without entering minutely into the narrative parts, we shall only acquaint those of our readers who are not deeply versed in the history of that republic, that the inhabitants of its territory are separated into an unusual number of classes. Those who have obtained permission to establish their domicile in the city, or on its territory, are termed *domiciliés*. This permission is solely for one year, and is revocable at will. Their only privilege is to live under the protection of government. Those who were born in country-places, dependent on the state, and may have acquired property, are humiliated by the name of subjects. The inhabitants are such as were formerly simply domiciled, but to whom the edict of the year 1782 has granted the right of commerce and labour. The natives are those born of inhabitants. The son of a citizen, when born out of the country, is considered as a simple bourgeois; nor could he, before the new regulation, be admitted into the corps of the senate. The last class, superior to all the others, is that of citizen. A citizen is eligible to the first employments in the republic, and may become a member of the Petit Conseil. It was on account of this superiority of title, that Rousseau assumed it with so much triumph, as

a check to the pride of those noble subjects who were his greatest antagonists. From the general assembly of citizens and burgers, the inferior councils, invested with the executive power, derive their origin. These form three colleges. The college or council of twenty-five; which regulates the police: the council of sixty; whose proper department is similar to that of our privy council: and the council of two hundred; superintendent of the other councils.—Four syndics preside at these councils, whose charge is annual. The most important, and the most splendid office, is that of Procureur Général, chosen from the council of two hundred. The object of his department is to support the right of citizens, and to protect the constitution. His commission is usually for three years, but it may be extended to fix.

To give even a general idea of the rise and causes of the repeated commotions that have distressed Geneva, we should be obliged to allot too large a space to this discourse. If our readers will admit the propositions, that those who feel themselves distressed, will perpetually endeavour at their own enlargement; and that those who possess power, are very seldom contented with the enjoyment of it within the limits for which they professed the deepest reverence at the season of their induction, but seek to enlarge it in the two opposite directions; we mean by oppressing those beneath them, and encroaching on those above them: if they will admit these propositions, they may easily form to themselves some ideas of the evils which must necessarily arise from a subdivision of classes, which is so inseparably connected with a contrariety of interests. One remedy, proposed by this politician, is to annihilate some of these classes.

It would be (says he) a mark of wisdom to form the citizens, the burgers, and the natives, into one class. Suppose that the son of a citizen be born at a distance from his

his country; when he returns to dwell in the city of his fathers, he should be received as a child that, having been absent, returns home, and should be entitled to the same privileges with his brethren. Again, is not a native a child of the republic? While he continues faithful to the country that gave him birth, he ought to enjoy the privileges of a citizen, and even to communicate the title to his parent, if he is become a perpetual resident.

He farther proposes, that the domiciled should, after the lapse of ten years, become citizens; or, at an earlier period, on their marriage with the daughters of citizens. To conciliate the minds of those who are now considered as subjects of the states, he proposes that they should be entitled to appoint deputies to the states, whenever they shall possess property, the taxation of which contributes to the expences of government. He acknowledges that even these regulations are not exactly conformable to the ideas of equality adopted by his countrymen—but he cannot conceal his apprehensions, that the formers of the French constitution have extended that idea to a pernicious length. We shall translate the passage, as the undisguised sentiments of so respectable a member of the preceding Assembly, are, at this period, peculiarly interesting.

These distinctions are not exactly conformable to our principles of equality: but I am not to be deceived by high-sounding words. I both think and declare, that all men are not capable of being admitted into councils and important deliberations. All do not possess that courageous firmness, and those clear conceptions which oppose tyranny, and discover the snares of seduction. It is much easier to pass a pernicious law, and an obnoxious edict, through a tumultuous assembly, than through one better formed for reflection. How great may be the ascendancy which, I will not say eloquence, but inflated declamation, and deceitful exaggerations, may have over an ignorant multitude that are transported by sounds, and are insensible to the force of just sentiment. Alas! after having employed this mass, whose impulse is irresistible, we shall perhaps be obliged to have recourse to violence, in order to check its movements, and prevent its weight from crushing the works of wisdom.

There are several other passages in this publication, which express similar sentiments.

Our limits oblige us to pass over the pleasing epitome here given of the constitutions of Sardinia, Savoy, and Piedmont; and also the many pertinent observations occasionally interspersed. The discourse on the origin and constitution of Naples is peculiarly interesting. The early history of this kingdom abounds with striking events. The civil commotions, also, which agitated Italy at that period, were intimately connected with, and had a very considerable influence over the interests and politics of all the adjacent powers: but this part of the work will not admit of either extract or abridgement that would prove satisfactory.

In the discourses on the constitutions of Spain and Portugal, the present abject state of those kingdoms is well delineated; and the causes of their decline are accurately pointed out. On suggesting the various methods by which Spain may recover her pristine splendour, and political importance, the author strongly enforces, among others, the necessity of an immediate union with France. The court of Madrid, he observes, becoming more enlightened every day, does not attempt to conceal from herself how much Spain has fallen from its ancient glory. "That court remarks, with what an envious eye England contemplates her rich possessions: nor is it ignorant how much it is her interest to connect itself with France." He asserts, that the assistance of every other country must be tardy and ineffectual. Since Holland is subjugated by the cabinet of Saint James's, Spain could only receive aid from Venice: but this republic is too discreet to oppose its marine to that of Great Britain. Its power must be limited to reinforcing a Spanish Squadron against Algiers, Tunis, and the empire of Morocco. Sweden, Denmark, Russia, from the situation

of their ports. can form no other connection with Spain than for the advantages of commerce. France is therefore the only power which she ought to consider as her true and important ally. M. de la Croix accordingly makes another effort of eloquence to dissuade the King of Spain from entering into the confederation against the liberty of France: warns him not to incense a nation that will never be friendly to those who seek to oppress her, or to deprive her of the most valued treasure; and he advises him, instead of taking the alarm at the change of the French constitution, to adopt as many of its principles as the state of Spain will admit.

Our author also employs similar powers of eloquence to detach the Portuguese, not from the alliance, but from the yoke, of England. He rejoices in the idea, that the cabinet of Lisbon begins to see and feel their bondage; and he tell them—

If Portugal determines to remain *Le Protegé de l'Angleterre*, it will be of no moment to place their military on a better establishment; to repair their fortifications; or that their troops should become more perfect in their discipline: but if she be ambitious to escape from its state of guardianship; if she has the desire of becoming some day what she was under Alphonso I. a respectable and independent power, let her not shut her eyes to the light that is diffused over Europe.

The new constitution of Poland is given entire, accompanied with occasional remarks perfectly correspondent with the leading sentiments diffused through this work. The French constitution is also exhibited at full length, but without any comments. The discourse on the royal acceptance is an elaborate attempt to prove that, in the last formal acceptance of the constitution, the King was not only perfectly free, but that his acceptance was an act of his choice. M. de la Croix founds his argument on the whole tenor of his Majesty's conduct since his return from Varennes: on the reasons that he gave for his attempting to

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retreat to Montmedi: on the assertion that, those objections being removed, he was fully disposed to acquiesce in the desires of his people; on his solemn oath: on his participation in the public rejoicings; and on the firmness and propriety of his behaviour to the present moment.

The above concise view of some of the leading subjects treated in this work, will manifest that it is not inferior in execution to the preceding volumes; and it is with equal confidence that we can recommend it as an interesting and useful performance.

VERHANDELING OVER DE INENT-ING, &c. or, *A Discourse delivered before the Literary Society denominated Felix Meritis, on the Inoculation of the Small Pox, in which the moral Obligation to the Practice is proved and enforced.* By the Rev. B. C. Sowden, Minister of the English Episcopal Church at Amsterdam. 8vo. 48 Pages. Amsterdam. 1792.

Most English readers may deem a treatise of this kind totally superfluous in the present day. The many excellent works that have been published at different periods, to prove the lawfulness of inoculation, united with the universal success attending the practice, have at length removed those fatal prejudices, which have lodged and disseminated the natural infection more effectually than ship-loads of cotton would disseminate the plague; but it appears that this is not the case in Holland. Our Belgic neighbours, one trait of whose national character seems to be an attachment to old customs, are not yet cured of the predilection for losing their lives after the manner of their forefathers, rather than preserve them by any new-fangled inventions. Among the higher class, the prejudice is losing ground: but the bulk of the people still contemplate the practice of inoculation with a degree of horror.

horror. Some continue to doubt whether inoculation be an effectual preservative; others, whether it be not a dangerous operation; a third class are apprehensive of implanting other diseases; a fourth cannot see its necessity, since it is possible that they may pass through life without catching the natural infection; and it is possible that they may escape, if they should be seized with it. Many consecrate their fears; and mistake a timid disposition respecting the issue, for a pious resignation to the will of God. Assure them of success, and they would be strongly tempted to offend. Some few, however, shudder at the idea of tempting Providence, as we foolishly say in England, by wilfully bringing so dreadful an evil on themselves, or on those under their care.

The little treatise before us is well calculated to remove all these doubts and difficulties. It firmly meets the different objections, and completely refutes them: but the prime object and chief merit of the performance consists in endeavouring to turn the weapons of the conscientious and well-disposed against themselves, and the destructive cause which they support: to convince them that, if parents and heads of families deem it a duty, in any case whatever, to preserve important and valuable lives: if they oppose sickness, and ward off the shafts of death, by the use of the most probable means, in other dangers, it is their duty also in this; and to prove that the discovery of inoculation ought to be contemplated and employed with gratitude, as a most efficacious means held forth by Providence to escape one of the most dreadful disorders that can afflict mankind.

It will not be necessary to follow this sensible and benevolent author in every part of the contest with pernicious ignorance and perverse prejudice, as he has stated his facts respecting the relative mortality of the natural small-pox, and the amazing success of inoculation, from

authorities that are well known: but we shall present our readers with an extract from that part of the work which is more properly his own, and which will give some idea of the ingenuity, novelty, and importance, of his argument.

After some pertinent observations relative to the havoc made by this dreadful distemper, and lamenting the deeply-rooted prejudices which deprive multitudes of the surest means of safety, he states the objections which have the most influence on pious and conscientious minds:

It is objected that, "for any one in perfect health designedly to receive the seeds of a dangerous disease, from which he might always have continued free, is a rash opposition to the will of Providence, and a sinful distrust of its parental care." Let us minutely examine this objection, and we shall easily detect its fallacy.

That the Supreme Being ordains and regulates every event in the wisest and best manner; that nothing can befall us without his permission, and that the most submissive acquiescence in his appointments is our great and indispensable duty; are truths that we all acknowledge; and I hope to prove, that these truths themselves, properly understood, are the firmest supports of our principles respecting inoculation.

After making some very just remarks, to prove that Providence uniformly operates both in the natural and moral world by the use of means; that whether we can perceive the connection or not, there is a regular chain of causes producing their correspondent effects; that by our ignorance of these causes, we are frequently involved in uncertainties, and make choice of improper means to accomplish the desired end; he proceeds, in the following manner, to shew the advantages that arise from some degree of uncertainty, and the inconveniences that would follow, were the uncertainty too great; and then to apply the arguments deducible from his general proposition to the subject of inoculation.

Although it is of great importance to the interest of virtue, and to the discharge of moral duties, as well as to inspire us with just ideas of our dependent state, that some uncertainty



uncertainty should remain concerning the operation of means employed to produce a particular end, yet, on the other hand, were this uncertainty too great, man would possess his natural and moral powers in vain. He could neither use his reason, nor improve his understanding, as he could place no confidence either in his own experience, or in that of another. He would resemble a benighted traveller lost in a pathless forest, remaining motionless, lest the first step that he should take might lead him to destruction.

When we can obtain any thing that either promotes our usefulness, or our comfort, without disobeying any moral law, or being in any respect injurious to our fellow-creatures, every one must allow not only that we are permitted, but that it is our indispensable duty to employ every proper method to accomplish these purposes. The preservation of health, the removal of diseases and infirmities, are duties which Providence has manifestly enjoined on all, as is obvious from the disposition which he has given us, and the circumstances and situations in which we are placed: but if Providence enjoins the pursuit of the object, he also requires that we should make use of the instruments which the same Providence has placed in our hands, and the efficacy of which has been demonstrated by experience. This we acknowledge in many cases, and we should in all, if superstition did not blind our eyes. Remove the veil of superstition and we shall clearly see that Providence acts no more without the use of means when we are afflicted by disease, than when we are blessed with health: but among the diseases to which we are exposed, some are brought on ourselves by our own indiscretions, or follies; others afflict us from causes which are entirely out of our knowledge, and over which we have no power. If, therefore, we are to contemplate either of these kinds as a punishment, to which it is our duty to submit

without attempting to remove the evil, it ought certainly to be the first, and not the last kind, in which we are merely passive. The small-pox obviously belongs to the last---to which we are so constantly exposed without any indiscretions of our own. If it be our duty, in the first kind of diseases, to use remedies calculated to remove the danger, and to restore health, it must still be more obligatory on us to employ every preventive method against an evil which we cannot resist in any other way; and in every case where the means are not prescribed to us by particular revelation, we are to consider that line of conduct as a duty, which reason and experience prescribe to us.

The above extract will sufficiently manifest the train of reasoning, which this able advocate for the cause of humanity pursues. We are happy to be informed, that his discourse was not only received with warm approbation, but that it has already been the instrument of removing the prejudices, and probably of saving the lives, of several, whose religious principles had prevented their submitting to the operation.

The fable at the end answers the purpose of a lively epilogue to a serious drama. The idea, on which it turns, is, that the inhabitants of a certain island in the moon, though they were frequently exposed to dangerous inundations, could not be induced to save themselves in a boat discovered by an artist: but submitted themselves to be drowned, rather than trust to a vessel that might overfet in their passage to the main land.

## BRITISH PUBLICATIONS.

TRAVELS DURING THE YEARS 1787, 1788, 1789, *undertaken more particularly with a View of ascertaining the Cultivation, Wealth, Resources, and national Prosperity, of France.* By Arthur Young, Esq. F.R.S. Bury St. Edmund's. 4to.

MR. YOUNG is well known by his *Annals of Agriculture*, and his *Tour in Ireland*; and he has now made a tour through several

parts of France with the same view.

The present situation of France renders every thing important which respects that kingdom; and although we have had many travellers from this country, who have written accounts of their tours, yet none have followed the plan of Mr. Young; we therefore looked for great information, nor have we been disappointed.

Mr. Young proceeded to Calais and Boulogne; of the latter he says,

Boulogne is not an ugly town: and from the ramparts of the upper part the view is beautiful, though low water in the river would not let me see it to advantage. It is well known that this place has long been the resort of great numbers of persons from England, whose misfortunes in trade, or extravagance in life, have made a residence abroad more agreeable than at home. It is easy to suppose that they here find a level of society that tempts them to herd in the same place. Certainly it is not cheapness, for it is rather dear. The mixture of French and English women makes an odd appearance in the streets; the latter are dressed in their own fashion; but the French heads are all without hats, with close caps, and the body covered with a long cloak that reaches to the feet. The town has the appearance of being flourishing: the buildings good, and in repair, with some modern ones; perhaps as sure a test of prosperity as any other. They are raising also a new church, on a large and expensive scale. The place on the whole is cheerful, and the environs pleasing; and the sea-shore is a flat strand of firm sand as far as the tide reaches. The high land adjoining is worth viewing by those who have not already seen the petrification of clay; it is found in the stoney and argillaceous state, just as what I described at Harwich. (*Annals of Agriculture*, vol. vi. p. 218.)

The view of Boulogne from the other side, at the distance of a mile is a pleasing landscape; the river meanders in the vale, and spreads in a fine reach under the town, just before it falls into the sea, which opens between two high lands, one of which backs the town.—The view wants only wood; for if the hills had more, fancy could scarcely paint a more agreeable scene. The country improves, more inclosed, and some parts strongly resembling England. Some fine meadows about Bonbrie, and several chateaus. I am not professedly in this diary on husbandry, but must just observe, that it is to the full as bad as the country is good; corn miserable and yellow with weeds, yet all summer followed with lost attention. On the hills, which are at no great distance from the sea, the trees turn their heads from it, shorn of their foliage: it is not therefore to the S. W. alone that we should attribute this effect.—If the French have not husbandry to shew us, they have roads; nothing can be more beautiful; or kept in more garden order, if I may use the expression, than that which passes through a fine wood of *Mont. Neuville's*; and indeed for the whole way from *Summer* it is wonderfully formed: a vast causeway, with

hills cut to level vales; which would fill me with admiration, if I had known nothing of the abominable corvées, that make me commiserate the oppressed farmers, from whose extorted labour, this magnificence has been wrung. Women gathering grafs and weeds by hand in the woods for their cows is a trait of poverty.

From hence our author directed his course to Montreuil, Abbeville, Amiens, Chantilly, Paris, Versailles, Orleans, Argenson, Limoges, Cahors, Thoulouse, Perpignon, Beziers, Montpellier, Nismes, Mirepoix, Bayonne, Bourdeaux, Poitiers, Tours, Blois, Orleans, Fontainebleau, and back to Paris. Such was our author's first tour: he then returned by Lille and Dunkirk to England.

In his next trip, in 1788, he proceeded to St. Omers, Havre, Caen, Cherbourg, Montauban, Morlaix, L'Orient, Nantes, Anjou, Tourbilly, Rouen, and returned to England by Dieppe.

In his third tour, 1789, he proceeded to Paris, Nangis, Meaux, Thierri, Rheims, Chalons, Metz, Strasbourg, Lisle, Dole, Dijon, Autun, Moulens, Clermont, Polignac, Avignon, Vaucluse, Marseilles, Toulon, Antibes, Nui, Turin, Milan, Brescia, Venice, Bologna, Florence, Parma, Turin, over the Alps to Chambéry, Lyons, and back to Paris.

In such tours it is not possible to follow our author, or to give any thing like a detail. After this, which is in the form of a journal, he gives us an account of the size and face of the country, climate, produce, rent, prices, courses of crops, irrigation, tenantry, size of farms, sheep, population, taxation, imports, exports, and a variety of other articles.

What passed at Amiens to Mr. Young, ought to be a lesson to the English how to behave to foreigners.

At Amiens, view the cathedral, said to be built by the English; it is very large, and beautifully light and decorated. They are fitting it up in black drapery, and a great canopy, with illuminations for the burial of the Prince de Tingry, colonel of the

the regiment of cavalry, whose station is here. To view this was an object among the people, and crowds were at each door. I was refused entrance, but some officers being admitted, gave orders that an English gentleman without should be let in, and I was called back from some distance and desired very politely to enter, as they did not know at first I was an Englishman. These are but trifles, but they shew liberality; and it is fair to report them. If an Englishman receives attentions in France, because he is an Englishman, what return ought to be made to a Frenchman in England, is sufficiently obvious.

Chantilly, the beautiful seat of the Prince of Condé, he thus describes:

Chantilly!—magnificence is its reigning character; it is never lost. There is not taste or beauty enough to soften it into milder features; all but the chateau is great; and there is nothing imposing in that, except the gallery of the Great Condé's battle, and the cabinet of natural history which is rich in very fine specimens, most advantageously arranged; it contains nothing that demands particular notice; nor is there one room which in England would be called large. The stable is truly great, and exceeds very much indeed any thing of the kind I had ever seen. It is 580 feet long, and 40 broad, and is sometimes filled with 240 English horses. I had been so accustomed to the imitation in water of the waving and irregular lines of nature, that I came at Chantilly prepossessed against the idea of a canal; but the view of one here is striking, and had the effect which magnificent scenes impress. It arises from extent, and from the right lines of the water uniting with the regularity of the objects in view. It is Lord Kaim's, I think, who says, the part of the garden contiguous to the house should partake of the regularity of the building; with much magnificence about a place, this is almost unavoidable. The effect here, however, is lessened by the parterre before the castle, in which the divisions and the diminutive jets-d'eau are not of a size to correspond with the magnificence of the canal. The menagerie is very pretty, and exhibits a prodigious variety of domestic poultry, from all parts of the world; one of the best objects to which a menagerie can be applied; these, and the Corsican stag, had all my attention. The hameau contains an imitation of an English garden; the taste is but just introduced into France, so that it will not stand a critical examination. The most English idea I saw is the lawn in front of the stables; it is large, of a good verdure, and well kept; proving clearly that they

may have as fine lawns in the north of France as in England. The labyrinth is the only complete one I have seen, and I have no inclination to see another: it is in gardening what a rebus is in poetry. In the Sylvae are many very fine and scarce plants. I wish those persons who view Chantilly, and are fond of fine trees would not forget to ask for the great beech; this is the finest I ever saw; it is as an arrow, and, as I guess, not less than 80 or 90 feet high; 40 feet to the first branch, and 12 feet diameter at five from the ground. It is in all respects one of the finest trees that can any where be met with. Two others are near it, but not equal to this superb one. The forest around Chantilly, belonging to the Prince of Condé, is immense, spreading far and wide.

Such a place has the present infatuated owner risked, and probably lost for ever, to preserve an empty title.

At Nîmes our author met with a circumstance so contrary to the general received opinion of the French, that we cannot persuade ourselves to omit it.

One circumstance I must remark on this numerous table d'hôte, because it has struck me repeatedly, which is the taciturnity of the French. I came to the kingdom expecting to have my ears constantly fatigued with the infinite volubility and spirits of the people, of which so many persons have written, sitting, I suppose, by their English fire-sides. At Montpellier, though 15 persons and some of them ladies were present, I found it impossible to make them break their inflexible silence with more than a monosyllable, and the whole company sat more like an assembly of tongue-tied quakers, than the mixed company of a people famous for loquacity. Here also, at Nîmes, with a different party at every meal it is the same; not a Frenchman will open his lips. To-day at dinner, hopeless of that nation, and fearing to lose the use of an organ they had so little inclination to employ, I fixed myself by a Spaniard, and having been so lately in his country, I found him ready to converse, and tolerably communicative; but we had more conversation than thirty other persons maintained among themselves.

Every thing which mark the manners of a people is interesting; we shall therefore conclude our extracts for this month with the account of Liancourt.

The ideas I had formed, before I came to

to France, of a country residence in that kingdom, I found at Liancourt to be far from correct. I expected to find it a mere transfer of Paris to the country, and that all the burthenome forms of a city were preserved, without its pleasures; but I was deceived: the mode of living, and the pursuits, approach much nearer to the habits of a great nobleman's house in England, than would commonly be conceived. A breakfast of tea for those that chose to repair to it; riding, sporting, planting, gardening, till dinner, and that not till half after two o'clock, instead of their old fashioned hour of twelve; music, chefs, and the other common amusements of a rendezvous-room, with an excellent library of seven or eight thousand volumes, were well calculated to make the time pass agreeably; and tend to prove that there is a great approximation in the modes of living at present in the different countries of Europe. Amusements, in truth, ought to be numerous within doors; for, in such a climate, none are to be depended on without: the rain that has fallen here is hardly credible. I have for five-and-twenty years past, remarked in England, that I never was prevented by rain from taking a walk every day without going out while it actually rains; it may fall heavily for many hours; but a person who watches an opportunity gets a walk or a ride. Since I have been at Liancourt, we have had three days in succession of such incessantly heavy rain, that I could not go an hundred yards from the house to the duke's pavilion, without danger of being quite wet. For ten days more rain fell here, I am confident, had there been a gauge to measure it, than ever fell in England in thirty. The present fashion in France, of passing some time in the country is new; at this time of the year, and for many weeks past, Paris is, comparatively speaking, empty. Every body that have country-seats are at them; and those who have none visit others who have. This remarkable revolution in the French manners is certainly one of the best customs they have taken from England; and its introduction was effected the easier, being assisted by the magic of Rousseau's writings. Mankind are much indebted to that splendid genius, who, when living, was hunted from country to country, to seek an asylum, with as much venom as if he had been a mad dog; thanks to the vile spirit of bigotry, which has not yet received its death's wound. Women of the first fashion in France are now ashamed of not nursing their own children; and stays are universally proscribed from the bodies of the poor infants, which were for so many ages tortured in them, as they are still in Spain. The country residence may not have effects equally obvious; but they will be no less sure in the end,

and in all respects beneficial to every class in the state.

The duke of Liancourt being president of the provincial assembly of the election of Clermont, and passing several days there in business, asked me to dine with the assembly, as he said there were to be some considerable farmers present. These assemblies, which had been proposed many years past by the French patriots, and especially by the marquis de Mirabeau, the celebrated *ami des hommes*; which had been treated by M. Necker, and which were viewed with eyes of jealousy by certain persons, who wished for no better government than one whose abuses were the chief foundation of their fortunes; these assemblies were to me interesting to see. I accepted the invitation with pleasure. Three considerable farmers, renters, not proprietors of land, were members, and present. I watched their carriage narrowly, to see their behaviour in the presence of a great lord of the first rank, considerable property, and high in royal favour; and it was with pleasure that I found them behaving with becoming ease and freedom, and though modest, and without any thing like flippancy, yet without any obsequiousness offensive to English ideas. They started their opinions freely, and adhered to them with becoming confidence. A more singular spectacle, was to see two ladies present at a dinner of this sort, with five or six and twenty gentlemen; such a thing could not happen in England. To say that the French manners, in this respect, are better than our own, is the assertion of an obvious truth. If the ladies are not present at meetings where the conversation has the greatest probability of turning on subjects of more importance than the frivolous topics of common discourse, the sex must either remain on one hand in ignorance, or, on the other, filled with the foppery of over education, learned, affected, and forbidding. The conversation of men, not engaged in trifling pursuits, is the best school for the education of women.

[ To be continued. ]

DISSERTATIONS AND MISCELLANEOUS PIECES, relating to the History and Antiquities, the Arts, Sciences, and Literature, of Asia. 2 Vols. 8vo. London. 1792.

These volumes are chiefly selected from the transactions of the Asiatic Society, and are the works of Sir Wm. Jones, Mr. Chambers, Mr. Hastings, General Carnac, Mr. Vansittart, Mr. Wilkins, Mr. Rawlins, Mr. Shore, Mr. Williams, Mr. Keir, Colonel Pearle, Lieutenant Colonel Polier, and others.

The

The first volume contains the papers of Sir W. Jones, and are the following: I. Dissertation on the gods of Greece, Italy, and India. II. On the literature of Asia. III. On the Hindus. IV. On the Arabs. V. On the Tartars. VI. On the Persians. VII. On the Chinese. VIII. On the island of Hinzuán, or Johanna. IX. On the chronology of the Hindus. X. A supplement to the essay on Indian chronology. XI. On the Indian game of chess. XII. On the second classical book of the Chinese. XIII. On the antiquity of the Indian zodiac. XIV. On the plants of India. XV. On the spikenard of the ancients.

Vol. II. contains, I. On the ruins of Mavalipuram. II. An interview with the young Lama. III. A journey to Tibet. IV. On the Sic'ks and their college. V. On the Indian trial of ordeal. VI. On the literature of the Hindus. VII. On the descent of the Afghans from the Jews. VIII. On extracting the essential oil of roses. IX. A description of Afám. X. On the mountaineers of Tipra. XI. On the Indian gros beak. XII. An account of Nepál. XIII. On the two Indian festivals, and the Sphinx. XIV. On the isle of Carnicobar. XV. On the cure of the Elephantiasis. XVI. On the cure of persons bitten by snakes. XVII. On the city of Tagara. XVIII. A royal grant found at Támma. XIX. A royal grant found at Mongueer. XX. On an ancient building at Hájpur. XXI. On the mode of distilling at Chitra. XXII. On the Pangolin of Bahar. XXIII. On the Lac insect. XXIV. An inscription at Buddha Gayá. XXV. An inscription on a pillar near Buddal. XXVI. On a cave with an inscription near Gayá. XXVII. Translation of a Sanscrit inscription. XXVIII. An inscription found near Islámabád. Appendix. I. Hymn to Camdeo. by Sir William Jones. II. Hymn to Narayena. by the same. III. An account of embassies and letters be-

tween the Emperor of China and Sultan Shahrokh, translated by W. Chambers, Esq. IV. A short account of the Mahratta State, translated by W. Chambers, Esq.

Two of Sir William Jones's annual dissertations, read before the Asiatic Society, we have inserted in the body of the work; and as a specimen of the works of the other contributors, we shall insert Colonel Pearse's account of the two Hindu festivals, and the Indian Sphinx.

I beg leave to point out to the Society, that the Sunday before last was the festival of Bhavani, which is annually celebrated by the Gopas and all other Hindus who keep horned cattle for use or profit: on this feast they visit gardens, erect a pole in the fields, and adorn it with pendants and garlands. The Sunday before last was our first of May, on which the same rites are performed by the same class of people in England, where it is well known to be a relique of ancient superstition in that country: it should seem, therefore, that the religion of the east and the old religion of Britain had a strong affinity, Bhavani has another festival; but that is not kept by any one set of Hindus in particular, and this is appropriated to one class of people: this is constantly held on the ninth of Baishá'h; which does not always fall on our first of May, as it did this year. Those members of the Society who are acquainted with the rules which regulate the festivals, may be able to give better information concerning this point: I only mean to point out the resemblance of the rites performed here and in England, but must leave abler hands to investigate the matter further, if it should be thought deserving of the trouble. I find, that the festival which I have mentioned, is one of the most ancient among the Hindus.

II. During the Huli, when mirth and festivity reign among Hindus of every class, one subject of diversion is to send people on errands and expeditions that are to end in disappointment, and raise a laugh at the expence of the person sent. The Huli is always in March, and the last day is the greatest holiday: all the Hindus who are on that day at Jagannat'h, are entitled to certain distinctions, which they hold to be of such importance, that I found it expedient to stay there till the end of the festival; and I am of opinion, and so are the rest of the officers, that I saved above five hundred men by the delay. The origin of the Huli seems lost in antiquity; and I have not been able to pick up the smallest account of it.

If the rites of Mayday show any affinity between the religion of England in times past and that of the Hindus in these times, may not the custom of making April-fools, on the first of that month, indicate some traces of the Huli? I have never yet heard any account of the origin of the English custom; but it is unquestionably very ancient, and is still kept up even in great towns, though less in them than in the country: with us it is chiefly confined to the lower classes of people; but in India high and low join in it; and the late Shujaul Daulah, I am told, was very fond of making Huli-fools, though he was a Musselman of the highest rank. They carry it here so far, as to send letters making appointments in the names of persons, who, it is known, must be absent from their house at the time fixed on; and the laugh is always in proportion to the trouble given.

III. At Jagannat'h I found the Sphinx of the Egyptians. Murari Pandit, who was deputy Faujdar of Balafor, attended my detachment on the part of the Mahrattas: he is now the principal Faujdar, and is much of the gentleman, a man of learning, and very intelligent. From him I learned, that the Sphinx, here called Singh, is to appear at the end of the world, and, as soon as he is born, will prey on an elephant: he is, therefore, figured seizing an elephant in his claws; and the elephant is made small, to show that the Singh, even a moment after his birth, will be very large in proportion to it.

When I told Murari, that the Egyptians worshipped a bull, and chose the god by a black mark on his tongue, and that they adored birds and trees, he immediately exclaimed, "Their religion then was the same with ours; for we also chose our sacred bulls by the same marks; we reverence the hanfa, the garura, and other birds; we respect the pippal and vata among trees, and the tulash among shrubs; but as for onions, (which I had mentioned) they are eaten by low men, and are fitter to be eaten than worshipped."

#### REMARK BY THE PRESIDENT.

Without presuming to question the authority of Murari Pandit, I can only say, that several Brahmans, now in Bengal, have seen the figure at Jagannat'h, where one of the gates is called Sinhadwar; and they assure me, that they always considered it as a mere representation of a Lion seizing a young elephant; nor do they know, they say, any sense for the word Sinha but a Lion, such as Mr. Hastings kept near his garden. The Huli, called Holaka in the Vedas, and P'halgutsava in common Sanscrit books, is the festival of the vernal season, or Nauruz of the Persians.

THE SECRET HISTORY OF THE COURT AND REIGN OF CHARLES THE SECOND, by a Member of his Privy Council. To which are added, Introductory Sketches of the preceding Period, from the Accession of James I. With Notes, and a Supplement continuing the Narrative in a summary Manner, to the Revolution, by the Editor. Vols. II. 8vo. London. Bew.

[ Concluded from page 60. ]

This volume begins with the opening of the Parliament of 1663, and continues to 1668. Of the life of Sir Henry Bennet and Coventry, and their league of friendship, we have the following account.

The first of those new performers on the political theatre was Sir Harry Bennet, who had resided for some time as his majesty's agent, or envoy at Madrid; and who, since the restoration, had obtained his recall, as hoping by means of the king's favour and his own dexterity to make a more rapid fortune at home than he could in a foreign country. He always professed great respect for the chancellor, with whom he was obliged, while abroad, to correspond, and by whom his instructions were regularly drawn, though whatever orders he received, and how positive soever, he observed so far, and not farther than his own humour disposed him. Even during this formal correspondence with the chancellor, he held a more secret intelligence with Daniel O'Neale of the bedchamber, by whose means he obtained the king's consent to many particulars which he himself advised, without the privity of the chancellor, or either of the secretaries of state. He had renewed the treaty with Spain, without their being once consulted; nor did they know any thing of his having left Madrid, till they heard that he was in Paris, from whence he arrived in London in a very short time after. He was well received by the king, in whose affections he had a very good place; and shortly after his arrival, his majesty conferred upon him the only office then vacant, which was that of privy purse; and admitted him into a great familiarity, and to the nightly meeting of favourites at lady Castlemaine's, where he filled a principal place to all intents and purposes. His discourse was always enlivened with ready wit and pleasantry; and he could also throw into it a great deal of that lascivious seasoning, which was the highest treat at those conversations. In politics he flattered the king's



king's wishes, and paid his court to the lady with equal address; and, with regard to religion, if he had any, it was supposed to be a leaning towards popery. By the display of these accomplishments he made himself so agreeable, and was thought so useful, that the king desired the chancellor to use his credit to get Sir Harry elected a member of the house of commons, which was accordingly done upon the first opportunity.

The other person now brought forward was Mr. William Coventry, the youngest son of the late lord Coventry, who had been many years lord keeper of the great seal. This gentleman, towards the close of the civil war, had the command of a company of foot, and shortly after travelled into France, where he remained whilst there was any hope of getting another army for the king, or that either of the other crowns would engage in his quarrel. But when all thoughts of that were desperate, he returned to England, and gave up every idea of any farther attempt, till the king was proclaimed in London. He then went over with others to offer his service to his majesty at the Hague, and had the good fortune to find the duke of York without a secretary. He was therefore received into that employment, which as the duke held the office of high admiral of England, was not only very honourable, but almost as lucrative as that of secretary of state. He was a fullen, ill-natured, proud man, whose ambition had no limits: his parts were very good, if he had not thought them better than any other man's; and he had diligence and industry, which men of good parts are too often without, which made him quickly to have at least credit and power enough with the duke. He had a seat in the house of commons from the beginning of the parliament: he always spoke pertinently, and was well attended to: he was, in like manner, one of those, with whom the persons trusted by the king in conducting his affairs in the lower house consulted very frequently. But perceiving that the advice of some few others, who had much longer experience, was more relied upon than his, he began to think himself not valued enough, and only made use of to promote the designs and contrivances of other men, without being signal in the management, to which he aspired. This determined him to make frequent experiments how far he himself could prevail in the house, by declining the method that was prescribed, and proposing somewhat which was either beside, or contrary to it. Then if it succeeded, as it sometimes did, the rest of the court party not opposing him, from a belief of his having received newer directions, he had argument enough to censure the chancellor for having formed

wrong ideas of the temper and affections of the house.

When those two persons, Sir Harry Bennet and Mr. Coventry, (who had entered into as great a league of friendship as can subsist between two very proud men) came to sit together in the house of commons, though the former of them knew no more of the constitution and laws of England, than he did of China, nor had in truth a care or tenderness for church or state, but believed France was the best pattern in the world, they thought it would be doing them the greatest wrong, if they were not allowed entirely to govern the house, or if the king took his measures of what should be done there from any body but themselves. They made friendships with several young members, who spoke confidently, and often seemed to have credit in the house. As these were for the most part country gentlemen of ordinary condition, and mean fortunes, they were desirous to secure the interest of such a person as Sir Harry Bennet, who was thought to have, and who indeed had considerable influence with his majesty.

Sir Harry, proud of having gained such a number of adherents, fancied he understood the house, and what was to be done there, as well as any man in England. He recommended those men to the king, as persons of sublime parts; spoke in their own hearing of the services they had done, and how much greater they could do; and assured his majesty, that with such loyal and zealous supporters he might carry what he would in the house of commons. The king received and conferred with them very graciously, and dismissed them with promises which made them rich already. They had before been entirely governed by Sir Hugh Pollard, under the chancellor's secret direction; but they thought they had now got a better patron: the new courtier had raised their value, and talked to them of recompences and rewards in a different dialect from what they had been accustomed to.

Of the shameful venality of the court in this reign, we have the following detail.

This being the state and temper of the royal family, when the king was recalled, the very next morning after the fleet came to Scheveling, the duke went on board, and took possession of it as lord high admiral; and his secretary provided new commissions for all the officers then in command, for which it is probable they paid him very liberally, as with him the custom began of demanding five pounds for every warrant signed by the duke, though the

fee to former secretaries had never exceeded twenty shillings. Mr. Coventry, who was utterly unacquainted with all the rules and customs of the sea, and knew none of the officers, but was much courted by all on account of the place he filled, made choice of Captain Penn, whom the king knighted as soon as he came on board, and with whom the secretary made a fast friendship, being guided by him in every thing. Penn had risen from the rank of a common sailor to the highest command under Cromwell, with whom he was in great favour, till he failed in the enterprize against St. Domingo, when he was admiral at sea, and Venables had the command of the land forces. At their return to England, they were both imprisoned in the Tower, and never after employed by the protector. Upon Cromwell's death, Penn had an appointment again at sea, and was at this time under Montague, when he went to attend the king. By the present change of the government, the places of all the officers belonging to the navy, the dock yards, and the whole admiralty became void, and were all, except those of the three superior officers of the navy, to be supplied by the duke, that is, Mr. Coventry, who by the advice of Penn, his only confident in the brokerage, conferred their upon those who would give most money, without the least regard to any other pretensions. While Coventry pursued this system of the most bare-faced venality, he took care to secure a proper number of friends near the duke's person, and to lessen the odium that he would incur by engrossing to himself the whole of those immense profits, or rather bribes. As the sums paid for their appointments by many of the principal officers in the dock-yards were considerable, and must attract notice, some being obliged to give eight hundred, and others a thousand pounds for their places, he had the skill to move the duke to bestow the fees arising from one of those lucrative appointments on some person of his household, Sir Charles Berkeley for instance, and the money paid for another place upon another of his servants, and some to be divided between two or three; by which means all the duke's family were laid under obligations, and retained to justify him, and even the duke looked upon it as a generosity in Mr. Coventry to accommodate his fellow-servants with what he might have asked, or kept for himself. But it was the best husbandry he could have used; for by this means all men's mouths were stopp'd, while the smaller sums for a multitude of offices of all kinds were reserved for himself with less notice, and jealousy, though they amounted to much more than any officer under the king could get by all the perquisites of his place for many years.

Among the many irreparable inconveniences and mischiefs which resulted from this corrupt manner of selling commissions to the highest bidder, and of filling up all the vacant offices in the navy without the smallest consideration of any man's character or merit, one grew quickly visible and notorious in the stealing and embezzling all sorts of things out of the ships, even when they were in actual service: but when they returned from any voyages, it was much worse; for then great quantities of various stores, which ought to have been delivered back into the proper offices appointed to receive them, were embezzled and sold, and very often sold to the king himself for the fitting out of other ships. When this was discovered, as sometimes happened, and the criminal person apprehended, it was alledged by him, as a defence or excuse, that he had paid so dear for his place, that he could not maintain himself and his family without practising such thefts: yet none of those fellows were ever brought to exemplary justice; and most of them were restored to their employments. Thus was the public service injured, and the state plundered with impunity, through the corruption of one individual, unhappily placed at the head of so great a department.

The second and third chapters treat of the events of the war with Holland, the plague of the year 1665, and of the fire of London, 1666.

The fourth chapter contains a full account of the disgrace and banishment of the Lord Chancellor Clarendon, of Sir W. Temple's negotiation, and various other matters of less importance. Here the memoirs end, and a supplement is added, containing the history and the death of the king. To give our readers an idea of the manner in which this part of the work is conducted, we shall select the account of the death of Lord Russell.

After the condemnation of three of those who were accused of a conspiracy against the king's life, and who were tried first, in order to inflame the minds of the public, and to confound the charge of an insurrection with that of the assassination-plot, Lord Russell, eminent above all the nobility for the simplicity of his manners, and the purity of his life, was pitched on to be the next sacrifice. When the prisoner came into court, he desired a delay of his trial till the next day, because some of his witnesses could

could not arrive in town before the evening. This reasonable request Pemberton, the lord chief justice, seemed inclined to comply with, but was prevented by the attorney-general, who with malignant falsehood observed, that the prisoner did not intend to have granted the king the delay of one hour to save his life. The next important question related to the jury, who were all of them so notoriously devoted to the wicked purposes of the court, that no candour, humanity, or justice, was to be expected from them. But as such an objection would have had no other effect than that of provoking them to personal revenge, they were challenged by the prisoner, on the ground of their not being freeholders; and though the law was expressed on his side, yet the objection was over-ruled by the unanimous voice of the bench. The witnesses against him were two of the city conspirators, and Lord Howard, men whose lives were yet at the mercy of the crown: but though their evidence was incongruous, illegal, and insufficient, yet its defects were amply supplied by the declamations of the crown-lawyers, and the accommodating consciences of the jury, who brought in the prisoner guilty.

Lord Ruffel, knowing how obnoxious he was to the court from the part he had acted on the bill of exclusion, had given up all thoughts of preserving his life from the first moment of his imprisonment. However, he so far conformed to the earnest solicitations of his friends, as to send a petition to the king, in which he offered to live beyond sea in any place his majesty should name, and never to meddle any more in English affairs; but Charles was inexorable to all intreaty. He not only rejected the petition of the condemned lord, and another from his father, the Earl of Bedford, but beheld without sympathy or remorse Lady Ruffel, the daughter of his faithful servant, the late Earl of Southampton, motionless at his feet. He even signed the death-warrant with an insult; and on being told, that Monsieur Rouvigny, who was a relation to the Bedford family, was coming over with intercessions from the court of France in favour of his kinsman, he replied, "I shall be glad to see the ambassador, but Lord Ruffel's head will be off before he arrives."

A notion had prevailed among his lordship's friends, that a pardon might be procured, provided he would acknowledge the doctrine of non-resistance in its fullest extent; and Dr. Tillotson and Dr. Burnet endeavoured, though in vain, to reason the prisoner into such a confession. "I can have no conception," said he, "of a limited monarchy, which has not a right to defend its own limitations; and my conscience will not permit me to say otherwise to the king." Lord Cavendish had lived in the

closest intimacy with Ruffel, and did not desert his friend in the present calamity: he offered to manage his escape by changing cloaths with him; but the prisoner refused to save his own life by an expedient, which might expose his friend to many hardships; and when the Duke of Monmouth sent a message, that he would cheerfully surrender himself, if Ruffel thought that this measure would anywise contribute to his safety, "It will be no advantage to me," he said, "to have my friends die with me."

The conduct of Lord Ruffel during his trial, his confinement, at his death, and, in a more severe test of fortitude, the parting with his wife and children, was perfectly conformable to that dignified simplicity, purity, and devotion, which had distinguished the whole tenor of his life. With a deep silence, with a long and fixed look, in which respect and affection, unmingled with passion, were expressed, Lord and Lady Ruffel parted for ever: his eyes followed her's, while she quitted the room, and when he lost sight of her, he said to Dr. Burnet, who attended him in the character of a friend and clergyman, "The bitterness of death is now passed."

With a view of indulging the insolence of party, and of mortifying the exclusivists with the sight of their beloved leader conducted to execution through the principal streets of London, the scaffold was erected in Lincoln's-Inn Fields; a circumstance which, however it might shock the feelings of his friends, had no effect on the prisoner, who whilst he seemed touched with the tenderness of those among the spectators who could not refrain from tears, expressed no indignation at others who had the barbarity to insult him in his passage. On looking towards Southampton-house, the tear started in his eye, but he instantly wiped it away. He was attended by Dr. Tillotson and Dr. Burnet, the one to assist him in his devotion, and the other to do justice to his memory; and when he arrived at the scaffold, addressing himself to one of the sheriffs, he said, he did not love much speaking, nor expected now to be well heard; he had therefore set down in a paper, which he then delivered, what he had thought proper to leave behind him; and added, "God knows how far I always was from any designs against the king's person, or of altering the government; and I still pray for the preservation of both, and the protestant religion. In the words of a dying man I profess I know of no plot either against the king's life, or the government; but I have now done with this world, and am going to a better: I forgive all my enemies: I thank God, I die in charity with all men; and I wish all sincere protestants may love one another, and not make way for popery by their animosities." After some time spent in devo-

tion, the prisoner embraced his two friends, and with a cheerful and serene countenance laid his head on the block, which was severed from the body by two strokes of the axe; and, to the mortification of the court, the spirit of party was so far subdued by sympathy, that on the exposure of the bleeding head, with the usual proclamation, the scaffold resounded with the universal groans and lamentations of the spectators.

On the day that Lord Ruffel was brought to his trial, the king and the Duke of York, from a curiosity unworthy of their rank, or the characters of gentlemen, went to the Tower, in order to see him pass. As they were going back to their barge, the cry followed, that Lord Essex had cut his own throat; and this intelligence was quickly conveyed to the Old Bailey, where the king's counsel made a very unwarrantable use of it to confirm the plot, and to render Lord Ruffel more apparently guilty: a circumstance that gave the stronger credit to another report which immediately prevailed, that the earl had not been his own murderer, but that he had been very opportunely disposed of by the hands of others.

THE LIFE OF SAMUEL JOHNSON,  
L. L. D. Vol. II. By James Boswell, Esq. 1791.

[Continued from page 68.]

In the year 1781, Dr. Johnson completed his biographical prefaces to the poets—For the whole of which, he received only 300*l*. On the 4th of May in this year Dr. Johnson lost his valuable friend Mr. Thrale, who left Dr. Johnson one of his executors. In the course of 1782 he complains, that he “passed the summer at Streatham, but there was no Thrale.” In the same year he was deprived of the society of Mr. Levett, who died suddenly; and experienced himself much illness. That his mental faculties were, however, not impaired, the following extracts will sufficiently evince.

To JAMES BOSWELL, Esq.

“Dear Sir,

“The pleasure which we used to receive from each other on Good-Friday and Easter-day, we must be this year content to miss. Let us, however, pray for each other, and hope to see one another yet from

time to time with mutual delight. My disorder has been a cold, which impeded the organs of respiration, and kept me many weeks in a state of great uneasiness, but by repeated phlebotomy it is now relieved; and next to the recovery of Mrs. Boswell, I flatter myself that you will rejoice at mine.

“What we shall do in the summer it is yet too early to consider. You want to know what you shall do now; I do not think this time of bustle and confusion likely to produce any advantage to you. Every man has those to reward and gratify who have contributed to his advancement. To come hither with such expectations at the expence of borrowed money, which, I find, you know not where to borrow, can hardly be considered as prudent. I am sorry to find, what your solicitation seems to imply, that you have already gone the whole length of your credit. This is to set the quiet of your whole life at hazard. If you anticipate your inheritance, you can at last inherit nothing; all that you receive must pay for the past. You must get a place, or pine in penury, with the empty name of a great estate. Poverty, my dear friend, is so great an evil, and pregnant with so much temptation, and so much misery, that I cannot but earnestly enjoin you to avoid it. Live on what you have, live if you can on less; do not borrow either for vanity or pleasure; the vanity will end in shame, and the pleasure in regret; stay therefore at home, till you have saved money for your journey hither.

“The Beauties of Johnson are said to have got money to the collector; if the Deformities have the same success, I shall be still a more extensive benefactor.

“Make my compliments to Mrs. Boswell, who is, I hope, reconciled to me; and to the young people, whom I never have offended.

“You never told me the success of your plea against the solicitors. I am, dear Sir, your most affectionate

SAM. JOHNSON.”

To JAMES BOSWELL, Esq.

“Dear Sir, Lond. June 3, 1782.

“The earnestness and tenderness of your letter is such, that I cannot think myself shewing it more respect than it claims by sitting down to answer it the day on which I received it.

“This year has afflicted me with a very irksome and severe disorder. My respiration has been much impeded, and much blood has been taken away. I am now harassed by a catarrhus cough, from which my purpose is to seek relief by change of air; and I am, therefore, preparing to go to Oxford.

“Whether I did right in dissuading you from coming to London this spring, I will not

not determine. You have not lost much by missing my company; I have scarcely been well for a single week. I might have received comfort from your kindness; but you would have seen me afflicted, and, perhaps, have found me peevish. Whatever might have been your pleasure or mine, I know not how I could have honestly advised you to come hither with borrowed money. Do not accustom yourself to consider debts only as an inconvenience: you will find it a calamity. Poverty takes away so many means of doing good, and produces so much inability to resist evil, both natural and moral, that it is by all virtuous means to be avoided. Consider a man whose fortune is very narrow; whatever be his rank by birth, or whatever his reputation by intellectual excellence, what good can he do? or what evil can he prevent? That he cannot help the needy is evident, he has nothing to spare. But, perhaps, his advice or admonition may be useful. His poverty will destroy his influence: many more can find that he is poor, than that he is wise; and few will reverence the understanding that is of so little advantage to its owner. I say nothing of the personal wretchedness of a debtor, which, however, has passed into a proverb. Of riches, it is not necessary to write the praise. Let it, however, be remembered, that he who has money to spare, has it always in his power to benefit others; and of such power, a good man must always be desirous.

"I am pleased with your account of Easter. We shall meet, I hope, in autumn, both well and both cheerful; and part each the better for the other's company.

"Make my compliments to Mrs. Boswell, and to the young charmers.

"I am, &c.

SAM. JOHNSON."

To JAMES BOSWELL, Esq.

"Dear Sir, Lond. Sep. 7, 1782.

"I have struggled through this year with so much infirmity of body, and such strong impressions of the fragility of life, that death, wherever it appears, fills me with melancholy; and I cannot hear without emotion, of the removal of any one, whom I have known, into another state.

"Your father's death had every circumstance that could enable you to bear it; it was at a mature age, and it was expected; and as his general life had been pious, his thoughts had doubtless for many years past been turned upon eternity. That you did not find him sensible must doubtless grieve you; his disposition towards you was undoubtedly that of a kind, though not of a fond father. Kindness, at least actual, is in our power, but fondness is not; and if by negligence or imprudence you had ex-

tinguished his fondness, he could not at will rekindle it. Nothing then remained between you but mutual forgiveness of each other's faults, and mutual desire of each other's happiness.

"I shall long to know his final disposition of his fortune.

"You, dear Sir, have now a new station, and have therefore new cares, and new employments. Life, as Cowley seems to say, ought to resemble a well ordered poem; of which one rule generally received is, that the exordium should be simple, and should promise little. Begin your new course of life with the least show, and the least expence possible; you may at pleasure increase both, but you cannot easily diminish them. Do not think your estate your own, while any man can call upon you for money which you cannot pay; therefore, begin with timorous parsimony. Let it be your first care not to be in any man's debt.

"When the thoughts are extended to a future state, the present life seems hardly worthy of all those principles of conduct, and maxims of prudence, which one generation of men has transmitted to another; but upon a closer view, when it is perceived how much evil is produced, and how much good is impeded by embarrassment and distress, and how little room the expedients of poverty leave for the exercise of virtue; its sorrows manifest that the boundless importance of the next life, enforces some attention to the interests of this.

"Be kind to the old servants, and secure the kindness of the agents and factors; do not disgust them by apery, or unwelcome gaiety, or apparent supplication. From them you must learn the real state of your affairs, the characters of your tenants, and the value of your lands.

"Make my compliments to Mrs. Boswell; I think her expectations from air and exercise are the best that she can form. I hope she will live long and happily.

"I forgot whether I told you that Rafay has been here; we dined cheerfully together. I entertained lately a young gentleman from Coriatachat.

"I received your letters only this morning. I am, dear Sir, yours, &c.

SAM. JOHNSON."

On the gradual decline of the friendship between the Thrale family and Dr. Johnson, Mr. Boswell remarks as follows:

The death of Mr. Thrale had made a very material alteration upon Johnson, with respect to his reception in that family. The manly authority of the husband no longer curbed the lively exuberance of the lady; and as her vanity had been fully gratified,

gratified, by having the colossus of literature attached to her for many years, she gradually became less assiduous to please him. Whether her attachment to him was already divided by another object, I am unable to ascertain; but it is plain that Johnson's penetration was alive to her neglect or forced attention; for on the 6th of October this year, we find him making a "parting use of the library" at Streatham, and pronouncing a prayer, which he composed "On leaving Mr. Thrale's family."

In 1783, Dr. Johnson was still more severely afflicted with disease. In the course of this year Mr. Boswell paid a visit to his friend; and the following is a part of their first evening's conversation.

Talking of conversation, he said, "There must, in the first place, be knowledge, there must be materials; in the second place, there must be a command of words; in the third place, there must be imagination, to place things in such views as they are not commonly seen in; and in the fourth place, there must be presence of mind, and a resolution that is not to be overcome by failures; this last is an essential requisite; for want of it many people do not excel in conversation. Now I want it, I throw up the game upon losing a trick." I wondered to hear him talk thus of himself, and said, "I don't know, Sir, how this may be, but I am sure you beat other people's cards out of their hands."

It has been observed and wondered at, that Mr. Charles Fox never talked with any freedom in the presence of Dr. Johnson, though it is well known, and I myself can witness, that his conversation is various, fluent, and exceedingly agreeable. Johnson's experience, however, founded him on going on thus: "Fox never talks in private company, not from any determination not to talk, but because he has not the first motion. A man who is used to the applause of the House of Commons, has no wish for that of a private company. A man accustomed to throw for a thousand pounds, if set down to throw for sixpence, would not be at the pains to count his dice. Burke's talk is the ebullition of his mind; he does not talk from a desire of distinction, but because his mind is full."

On the 17th of June he was afflicted with a paralytic stroke, which deprived him of speech; from which, however, he gradually recovered; and shortly afterwards he lost Mrs. Williams, whose death he lamented with all the tenderness which a long

connection naturally inspires. Besides the palsy, Dr. Johnson was also this year severely afflicted with the gout, as well as with a *sarcocoe*, which he bore with uncommon firmness. In the latter end of this year, however, he was well enough to institute a weekly club, which met, and still meets, at the Essex Head, in Essex-street.

In the commencement of the year 1784, Dr. Johnson was seized with a spasmodic asthma, which was soon accompanied with some degree of dropsy. From the latter of these complaints, however, he was greatly relieved by a course of medicine. In May, Mr. Boswell arrived in London, and participated in the pleasure which Dr. Johnson's recovery afforded to all his friends. On the 3d of June our biographer accompanied his friend to Oxford, which he had an unusual desire to see. In a conversation at Dr. Adams's, Dr. Johnson gave his opinion as follows of his friend Bishop Newton.

Dr. Newton, the Bishop of Bristol, having been mentioned, Johnson, recollecting the manner in which he had been mentioned by that prelate, thus retaliated;—"Tom knew he should be dead before what he has said of me would appear. He durst not have printed it while he was alive." *Dr. Adams.* "I believe his *Dissertations on the Prophecies* is his great work." *Johnson.* "Why, Sir, it is Tom's great work; but how far it is great, or how much of it is Tom's, are other questions. I fancy a considerable part of it was borrowed." *Dr. Adams.* "He was a very successful man." *Johnson.* "I don't think so, Sir.—He did not get very high. He was late in getting what he did get; and he did not get it by the best means. I believe he was a gross flatterer."

Our readers will probably not be displeased to read Dr. Johnson's opinion of that extraordinary statesman, Mr. Fox.

I asked him if it was true as reported, that he had said lately, "I am for the king against Fox; but I am for Fox against Pitt." *Johnson.* "Yes, Sir, the king is my master; but I do not know Pitt; and Fox is my friend."

"Fox



"Fox (added he) is a most extraordinary man; here is a man (describing him in strong terms of objection in some respects according as he apprehended, but which exalted his abilities the more) who has divided the kingdom with Cæsar; so that it was a doubt whether the nation should be ruled by the scepter of George the Third, or the tongue of Fox."

The character of Dr. Johnson will be better understood by the sketch of his life, than by any laboured and critical comments. Dr. Johnson united in himself what seldom are united—a vigorous and excursive imagination, with a strong and steady judgment—He was rather a man of learning than of science. He had accumulated a vast fund of knowledge, without much of system or methodical arrangement. He deserves the character of master of the Latin language, but it is easy to perceive that his acquaintance with Greek literature was, what it is commonly supposed to be, general and superficial, rather than curious or profound. Of natural science he knew but little, and most of his notions on that branch of philosophy were obsolete and erroneous. History he professed to disregard; yet his memory was so tenacious, that we seldom find him at a loss upon any topic, ancient or modern. Bigotted as to a particular system of politics, he appears obstinately to have closed his eyes against the light of truth; and so far from seeking for information on the subject, studiously resisted it. In divinity too we have to regret that his researches were limited. He was well acquainted with the general evidences of christianity, but he does not appear to have read his bible with a critical eye, nor to have interested himself at all concerning the elucidation of obscure or difficult passages. It was a favourite maxim with Dr. Johnson, "that the proper study of mankind is man;" and we must confess that in all the departments of moral science his excellence is unrivalled.—His *Ramblers*, &c. are a kind of *Theſaurus*, in which may be found

almost all of ethics that was valuable in the ancients, with the advantage of being modernized, and in general improved. His acute penetration also was constantly alive to "catch the manners living as they rise," and but few follies or peculiarities could escape his observation. From a very early period of life he had accustomed himself to a habit of close composition, and to a choice of the most forcible and appropriate terms. He generally studied before he spoke; and as he spoke but seldom, he was enabled to avoid that looseness of expression, into which men of more familiar manners, and greater fluency, are commonly betrayed. In a word, to great powers Dr. Johnson united a perpetual and ardent desire to excel, and even in an argument on the most indifferent subject he generally engaged with the whole force and energy of his great abilities. The style of Dr. Johnson is certainly too artificial: he is too fond of antithesis, and whoever will inspect the controversies of the rhetorician Seneca, will be at no loss to discover in what school of ancient eloquence he had been educated.

The dispositions of men are more formed by the external circumstances of their situation, than moralists in general are disposed to allow. In the early part of his life, Dr. Johnson had been too much depressed, in his latter years too lavishly indulged. His temper had at first been soured by disappointment and penury, and his petulance was afterwards cherished by flattery and universal submission. Man is not a creature to be trusted with despotic power, either temporal or intellectual. With every good and humane feeling, with an enlightened understanding, and the best of sentiments. Dr. Johnson was a tyrant in conversation; and chastized every rebellious effort against his arbitrary authority, not with whips, but with scorpions. His constitutional melancholy too had certainly been en-

creased

creased by the clouds which overspread his outset in the world; and in perusing his life we cannot but regret, that patronage to men of letters is generally withheld till it can be no longer of service. With these defects there was, however, scarcely a virtue of which Dr. Johnson was not in principle possessed. He was humane, charitable, affectionate, and generous. His most intemperate fallies were the effects of an irritable habit; he offended only to repent. Dr. Johnson has been charged with superstition, but we think unjustly.

On the question concerning apparitions, he observed that modest diffidence which every man who sincerely respects revelation will be disposed to observe; and while he admitted the general possibility, appeared scrupulous and sceptical as to particular facts.

In fine, the most honourable testimony to the moral and social character of any man whatever, is the cordial esteem of his friends and acquaintance, and it appears that Dr. Johnson was known by no man, by whom his loss was not regretted.

## P O E T R Y.

### LINES WRITTEN AT GHENT,

**During the late revolution in  
BRABANT, 1789.**

BY CHARLES JAMES, ESQ.

**A**H! thus in absence to repine,  
And sigh for joys that once were mine,

Each hour remembrance grieves me;  
But when I think of griefs repaid,  
By words, and broken sighs convey'd,  
Ideal joy relieves me.

A thousand cares annoy me now;  
I freeze with fear, with hope I glow,  
For still remembrance grieves me;  
But when her temper I review,  
So sweetly kind! so fondly true!  
Ideal joy relieves me.

Oft as I view the precious hair  
That deck'd the temples of my fair,  
As oft remembrance grieves me!  
But when her letters I peruse,  
And on the dear delusion muse,  
Ideal joy relieves me.

While into scenes of blood I move,  
That ill agree with gentle love,  
A sad remembrance grieves me;  
But when,---the gath'ring tumult o'er,---  
I turn to England's happy shore,  
Ideal joy relieves me.

### P A R A P H R A S E

ON DR. YOUNG'S CELEBRATED LINE,

"Procrastination is the thief of time."

BY THE SAME.

**P**ROCRASTINATION, like the beautiful rose,  
Attracts our fancy with its gay deceit:

Eager we snatch the blossom, ere it blows,  
Then shrink with horror at the sting we meet.

The school-boy thus by restless fancy led,  
Explores each beauty of the scented heath,

Nor once remembers, that, in sweetness fed,  
The wasp may point its poisonous tube beneath.

And canst thou trust to-morrow with thy peace?  
To-morrow, faithless promise of to-day!  
The mind's infection, and the soul's disease,  
Unreal substance, and illusive ray.

The youthful Lycidas to Heav'n prefer'd  
A wish for wealth, by modesty sustain'd;  
The pray'r of meek humility was heard:  
He ask'd for little, and that little gain'd.

Belinda next was made his tend'rest care;  
She felt the sigh, and bade him hope for ease:

Endearing sympathy subdu'd the fair,  
And both were happy, for they both could please.

Not on to-morrow were their prospects laid,  
No hopes were built on possible event:  
Calm resignation into age convey'd  
Health crown'd by time, and bright'ning in content.

Ambitious Clodio---imitate who will,  
The dazzling meteor's momentary blaze!  
By fashion cheated into splendid ill,  
Resign'd each comfort for alluring praise.

By fortune gifted with each earthly pow'r  
To glut the craving appetite of youth,  
He fondly trusted to some future hour,  
Preferring falsehood to ingenuous truth.

Around

Around him swarm'd of parasites a train,  
Till blank misfortune at his gates appear'd;  
For soothing gratitude he met disdain,  
And found presumption where he once was fear'd.

The peaceful mansion in whose bosom spread  
The mould'ring relics of his fathers lay;  
Is lorded o'er by strangers to the dead,  
And lifts a front inhospitably gay.

And can'st thou trust to-morrow with thy peace?  
Unfaithful guardian of to-day's repose!  
The joys it promises too quickly cease:  
The magic fades, and leaves us to our woes.

## O D E T O T H E L A R K .

ALL hail! thou mistress of the sky,  
Thou warbler of the Spring,  
That cheerful soar'st each morn on high,  
Thy tuneful notes to sing.

Soon as bright Phœbus shews his light,  
And shines with darting ray;  
Soon as the gloomy shades of night  
Begin to fly away;

While yet the grass is wet with dew,  
And man with sleep oppress'd,  
Thou tower'st aloft to regions new,  
And early leav'st thy nest.

Thou'rt early out upon the wing,  
To soar above the plains;  
Thy Maker's praise with care to sing,  
In sweet harmonious strains.

Ye inconsiderate, who spend  
And squander time away,  
Unto the pretty lark attend,  
And catch the passing day.

*Airdrie.* WILLIAM YATES, Jun.

V E R S E S  
T O A Y O U N G L A D Y ,  
O N T H E P R O M I S E O F A W A T C H - P A P E R ,  
A N D R E C O M M E N D I N G  
A F I G U R E O F T I M E A S T H E S U B J E C T .

ELIZA, the witty, good-natur'd, and gay,  
Whose smiles the soft radiance of pleasure impart,  
Remember the promise you made while in play,  
I discover'd and prais'd your embroidering art.

I wish for a subject, and instantly love,  
In the form of young Cupid, that mischievous boy,  
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Quits the fragrant recess of the Paphian grove,  
And would fain with his image the pencil employ.

But how can my bosom encourage the flame,  
While study severe checks the ardour of youth,  
And compels each warm feeling to stifle its flame,  
Or submit to the frowns of a science uncouth!

Then Time is the object that calls for my care,  
It's swiftness I know, and it's value I'll prize;  
And warn'd by the motto, will quickly prepare  
To review its past flight, and to watch as it flies.

And you, my fair friend, should reflect on the day,  
When each belle must the loss of her beauty deplore;  
While graces and charms like the snow melt away,  
And return to distinguish the features no more:

When Time (for we fly from the spoiler in vain)  
Robs the eye of it's lustre, the cheek of its bloom;  
Turns the rapture of bliss to the anguish of pain,  
And youth's bright horizon to age's deep gloom.

*Inner Temple.*

J. B.—.

## P A S T O R A L E L E G Y

—UPON

T H E A U T H O R O F T H E S H I P W R E C K .

*In Imitation of Cunningham's, on the Death of Shenstone.*

BY W. HAMILTON REID.

COME, sea-nymphs, and shew us the place,  
On the deep or the desolate coast;  
Where rest from the Muses' embrace,  
All the pride of our wishes was lost.

He was manly, and free as his song,  
He had ev'ry attraction to please;  
In a storm he was firm in the throng,  
In a calm he was kind as the breeze.

Ye mariners, gen'rous and bold,  
He pictur'd you gentle and brave;  
And can such as his numbers unfold,  
Dwell at ease on th' boisterous wave?

From the rocks and the shelves of the main,  
From each danger he taught you to keep;  
But my sighs will impede the sad strain,  
He was whelm'd in the mercilest deep.

U

No

No songs shall your labours beguile,  
Nor refund from th' echoing shore;  
Since he's gone who could soften your toil,  
Since the Muse of th' ocean's no more.

No dolphin the billows shall ride,  
No sun-beam the dark waves illumine;  
No Nereid disport on the tide,  
That gave way to so cruel a doom.

Our hills and our vallies more kind,  
May the swains to soft melodies move;  
But the rough roar of ocean and wind,  
He alone could to music improve.

So, ye Tritons, who range thro' the deep,  
If his harp ye should find in your way;  
Hang it high on some cloud-piercing steep,  
For no hand but his own 'twill obey.

## THEATRICAL INTELLIGENCE.

*Theatre Royal, Haymarket.*

A New piece, which the author thinks proper to call a Legendary Tale, has been performed, under the title of *THE ENCHANTED WOOD*. The characters of which are—

Julian	- - -	Mr. Palmer.
Ethelred	- - -	Mr. R. Palmer.
Owen	- - -	Mr. Bannister, jun.
Una	- - -	Mrs. Kemble.
Bridget	- - -	Mrs. Webb.
Orion	- - -	Mr. Bensley.
Tranfit	- - -	Mrs. Bland.
Cymbrel	- - -	Master Gregson.
Pytheon	- - -	Mr. Bannister.
Sylphina	- - -	Miss De Camp.
Althea	- - -	Mrs. Taylor.
Elison	- - -	Miss S. Degville.

The authors of the present day seem to think with Mr. Bayes, that if they can *elaborate* and *surprize*, they have done all that can be required of them; and whether they produce their bantling from their own brain, or steal every part of it, is very immaterial.

Our present bard, whoever he is, has taken his fable from a poem called *Edwy*; his characters of Una, Orion, Tranfit, and Pytheon, from the *Miranda*, *Prospero*, *Ariel*, and *Caliban*, of the *Tempest*, of Shakespeare; and his language (except such as he has pilfered from Shakespeare and Milton's *Comus*) from *Billinggate*. We would willingly spare a young author on his first attempt; but no excuse can be made for the manager, who should not have insulted the town with such a paltry piece.

## FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

*Warsaw, June 27.*

COUNT Ignace Potocki, Grand Marshal of Lithuania, who was sent express to Berlin to claim the succours stipulated by the treaty of alliance, is returned here. He was received with great distinction, but has not succeeded in the object of his mission, as the court of Prussia, it seems, in consequence either of the refusal to sacrifice Dantzick and Thorn, or owing to the Revolution of the 3d of May (which the King of Prussia says was effected without his knowledge), and the hereditary succession to the throne, regards that treaty of alliance as void. The answer of the Court of Vienna is to the same purport, expressing its inability to step forward as a mediator between Russia and Poland, and advising the King and the States to call a new Diet for the re-establishment of the old constitution. The Austrian Charge des Affaires at Warsaw has also declared, "That neither, the late Emperor Leopold, nor Francis the First, gave the Polish nation any promise of supporting the new constitution by their good offices; that neither wished to meddle with the affairs of Poland: That Francis the First had a very great esteem for the Elector of Saxony, but that he was confident that Prince regarded, as he did, the Crown of Poland as a burthen, and would not accept the offer of the Republic, but with the con-

sent of the three neighbouring Powers: That neither his Apostolical Majesty, or his allies the Emperors of Russia and the King of Prussia, could approve of the hereditary succession to the throne of Poland, nor permit that rage for change and confusion, which was at present so prevalent in many parts of Europe, to introduce itself into Poland, to the prejudice of the three neighbouring powers."

After these declarations it is not surprising if Poland has recourse to conciliatory means, not to abandon the new constitution or the hereditary succession to the throne, but to render the latter agreeable to the Emperors, by securing it to one of her descendants.

*June 30.* The Russian General Ferfen took, on the 20th instant, a fortified place, called Niefwicz, belonging to the house of the young Prince Radziwill; he found there 28 guns, 640 infantry, a great quantity of powder, and a small magazine. Mr. Dederho, commander of the place, did not surrender till one steeple was shot down by the enemy's fire. Our troops in Lithuania are eager to fight the enemy.

A courier from the army of Prince Poniatowski, has brought accounts, that he saw on his journey the Russian vanguard marching against our troops.

At Lublin a transport of gunpowder and

ammunition, destined for the Ukraine, caught fire and blew up. Two Jewish synagogues are destroyed, and a great number of houses damaged. Many persons were killed, and 90 wounded.

At Targovica, in the Polish Ukraine, the new confederation act was entered into, and signed, on the 14th of May, by the Emigrants. The chief articles are,

1. Against the succession to the throne.
2. Against the constitution of the 3d May 1791.
3. Against the privileges granted to the throne.
4. Against the diminution of the privileges of the Nobles.
5. Against the present Diet.
6. For the preservation of the Catholic Religion.
7. For the maintenance of ancient liberty, and the old republican government.
8. Against all cession of any Provinces of the Republic, &c. and finally, the assistance of the Empress of Russia is claimed in this act, according to the former treaties.

Mr. Felix Potocki, Count Branicki, Count Rzewusky, and several other Counsellors have signed it.

*Stockholm, July 6.* On Sunday the 24th of June a courier arrived here from Petersburg, with dispatches for Count de Stackelberg, the Russian Ambassador; and we since learn that his Court insists on the stipulated quota, of from 16 to 18,000 men, which the late King promised to furnish against France. It is true, in the secret treaty concluded, at Drottningholm, between Gustavus the third and the empress of Russia, measures were concerted against France, the new Constitution of which they refused to acknowledge; but the Duke Regent never approved of these engagements, and probably the King, his brother, never consulted him on the business. After the death of Gustavus, the Duke Regent acted with great circumspection in this point: he was unwilling to break through the engagements entered into by the late King directly, and his first answers to the instances of the Empress on that head were dilatory. Afterwards, by a courier which he sent to Petersburg, he declared, "That the situation of Sweden would not permit it to send troops against France, agreeably to the treaty of Drottningholm." The Russian cabinet have now claimed it afresh, but it is not likely that the Duke of Sudermania will deviate from the principles of neutrality which he has adopted.

The treaty concluded at Drottningholm was supposed to have been brought about by two Noblemen, favourites of his late Majesty. These Noblemen are general Baron d'Armfeldt, whom the late King appointed Grand Stadthalter or Governor of Stockholm a short time before his death,

and Gende Taube, to whom he at the same time entrusted the direction of the foreign department. After the death of Gustavus, however, the Duke Regent received them with great coolness, and an approaching storm was evident. It has at length burst. Mess. de Taube and d'Armfeldt requested permission of the Regent to go to Aix la Chapelle for the benefit of the waters; permission was granted; and they were at the same time informed, that in order to free themselves from every restraint, they were at liberty to resign their posts and military charges, which they have done. The command of the light dragoon guards, which was enjoyed by M. de Taube, has been conferred on Baron d'Essen, who was their major. Count de Liljehorn, brother to the Lieutenant-Colonel of that name, concerned in the conspiracy against the late King, is at the head of the King's guards, instead of Baron d'Armfeldt; and the command of the regiment of Nercia and Warmia, which the Baron held, is to be given to the Duke of Ostrogothia. This Nobleman, who is brother to the Duke of Sudermania and the late King, has lived for the greatest part of his life in obscurity; and from the smallness of his revenues was obliged to contract debts. The Duke of Sudermania has, however, paid off the debts, and has assigned to his younger brother a larger revenue.

M. de Taube is gone to Aix la Chapelle; but M. d'Armfeldt is gone on a tour through Germany, and will probably be absent some years.

*THE FRENCH FEDERATION, Saturday, July 14, in the Champ de Mars.*

It not unfrequently happens, that the general agitation upon apprehended danger is as friendly to the cause of ultimate order in a state as the calm of reflection. Thus it has happened with the commemoration of the regenerated rights of Frenchmen.

This morning opened as serenely as could be wished. At half an hour past five o'clock the drums beat to assemble. The guards of the Nation repaired to their 60 quarters, where the citizens assisting at the federation, were to convene with the Patriot troops. The six divisions assembled in the usual places, the detachments were sent to guard the King and the representatives of the people.

At nine o'clock the National Assembly meeting, deputed 60 of its members to lay the first stone of the column of liberty, which, perpetually a lesson, was decreed to stand upon the ruins of despotic mischief, the Bastille.

During this period the King, in his state carriage, accompanied by the Queen, Madame Elizabeth, the Prince Royal, Madame the King's Daughter, and the ladies of the court, proceeded to the military school, preceded by a detachment of cavalry, and other

other of troops of the line, escorted by 500 volunteers, and followed by four companies of Swiss guards.

#### ORDER OF PROCESSION.

The procession then in six divisions marched towards the Champ de Mars. The following sentiments were read upon the several banners:

*First Division.*—Liberty achieved. July 14, 1789.

The declaration of the rights of men painted upon two tablets, and borne by Citizens.

*Second Division.*—A fire figure of liberty preceded by two banners, the Legends of which were force and union, and liberty or death.

*Third Division.*—The Battalion of the *Enfans de la Patrie*, with a banner, upon which was written, "O our country; We grow to defend and avenge thy children!" The sword of the law upon a table covered with crape, carried by men in black, crowned with cypress, preceded and followed by others in white garments, crowned with white flowers, and bearing branches of laurel. The Huitiers of the tribunals carried a banner, upon which was inscribed these words—"The law is the expression of the general will--alike indiscriminate among men, whether in reward or punishment."—The Judges also were in this division.

*Fourth Division.*—Women clothed in white with girdles of three colours---Old men, children educated in the public school and academies, preceded by a banner, whereupon the following articles of the constitution was written:

"The Constituent Assembly remits this deposit to the vigilance of the fathers of families, to the wives and tender mothers, to the affliction of the young, and the courage of all Frenchmen."

*Fifth Division.*—Presented all the attributes of agriculture, of industry, and the arts---Also a superb figure of the law, and a banner bearing for its inscription---"We shall yet see reason triumph over all prejudices."

*Sixth Division.*---Comprehended the National Assembly, the King, the Ministers, and a banner bearing the words---"The sovereignty of the nation."

The Route of this magnificent procession was from the Boulevard St. Antoine across the Rue St. Denis, those of Ferronnerie, St. Honore, Royale, the Pont Triomphale, the streets of Bourgogne and St. Dominique, and the Esplanade of Invalids; and taking with them the King at the military school, they entered the Champ de Mars by the Rue Grenelle.

#### THE CHAMP DE MARS.

Upon the banks of the river, 54 pieces of cannon were planted.

The Glacis was adorned by 83 tents, surmounted by the national colours.

In front of the altar, towards the city, and upon the Glacis, a large and very splendid tent was erected for the National Assembly, the King, and the tribunal of cassation.

On the opposite side another of the same description for the notables, the presidents, commissaries of the section, and administrative bodies.

A plantation of eighty-three trees, marked where at a distance from the Glacis the federants of the departments were respectively to place themselves. The name of each department was designed by the tree, ornamented with the national colours and the cap of liberty.

The altar of the nation was formed of a truncated column, decorated with oaken garlands. In the circular plots of earth near and surrounding the altar, were basements for the statues, and seats for the judges of the tribunals.

On other parts of the same plain circles, were seats for the judges of the peace, and commissaries of the police.---Before them were placed, below the seats, the sword of justice.

In the other front, the municipalities, and below them, the groupe which preceded them.

At a distance from the altar was planted a large tree, on the side of the water, from the branches of which were suspended in form of garlands, the forgotten helmets and escutcheons, together with the sashes of the suppressed orders, interlaced by chains; and at the foot of the tree, a funeral pile, upon which were deposited crowns and coronets of every form, hats and doctoral bonnets, titles of noblesse, and sacks of procedures.

"The law's delay, the insolence of office."

Upon the opposite side, and at a similar distance from the altar, rose a pyramid, surrounded with cypress and with laurel. ---Upon one side of it was written, "To the citizens who died for their country upon the frontiers"---and upon the other, "Tremble, tyrants, we rise to avenge them."

Below one of the faces of the altar, and opposite to the National Assembly, was the orchestra for the music. Upon the four angles were centers filled with the most odoriferous perfumes.

Such were the preparations upon that immense field, for the reception of the confederates. It was two o'clock when the head of the procession entered the field, Groups of men and women of every description and age, armed in the most promiscuous manner with pikes and staves, together with a vast number of their children, filed off, having at their head a detachment of 50 masters of cavalry, and another of national guards.---Women followed, carrying branches of trees and various symbolical devices.

These



These were followed into the field by four legions of the Paris guards, with their bands of music; in the midst of them the commissaries of the sections, of the police, judges of the peace, and of the district, criminal and cassation tribunals. These again were intermingled with very strong detachments of the 104th and 105th regiments, commanded by M. M. Chertou and Maupertuis. Messieurs Wittenkoff, and Menou, General Officers, commanders of the interior division, were with the *Etat Major* in the middle of the field, opposite the balcony of the Royal Family, where were seated the King, the Queen, the Prince Royal, the rest of the family, and their suite.

Immediately before the fifth legion entered the field, the National Assembly, preceded by a piquet of cavalry, the miners of the *Garde Nationale*, and a detachment of Grenadier volunteers, escorted by other Grenadiers, and those of the *Gendarmerie*, came into the field, and halted; upon which the King, attended by his ministers, descended from the balcony; and his Majesty, placing himself at the left-hand of the president, marched at the head of the assembly. At the moment, the Escort of the Sovereign, which had previously been drawn up in Battalia, mingled with the Escort of the Assembly, and proceeded towards the altar.

At these different movements of the great bodies, the ordnance fired the salutes. ---By half past three o'clock they were most of them upon the ground.

#### THE CONSTITUTIONAL OATH.

The order of this solemn asseveration was in course somewhat impeded by the eagerness of the populace. A band of citizens had got possession of the altar, and deposited upon the platform a model of the *baftile* in relief. It was intended that the King, the President, and the commandant of the national guards, alone should ascend the altar as far as the book of the law, and there take their oaths, and the residue to follow in order, but from the amazing croud this could not be.

The King could advance no further than the first platform, in the midst of the assembly, excessively incommoded by the pressure of the assistants at this solemn ceremonial. In this situation therefore was the oath taken by the King of the French, unable to approach the volume of the constitution. The circumstance was denounced by a general discharge of the artillery, and the voice of 300,000 men.

By this time the two last legions were entered with the department, and the municipality, having as its head the mayor restored to office. Immediately a vociferation of *Vive Pethion*, was heard from sundry partizans mingled in the general mass.

The King upon this great occasion dis-

covered a soul in the highest degree firm and princely---he betrayed nothing like personal alarm; on the contrary his countenance and conduct evinced an internal composure which vindicated the mind of the descendant from the great Henry. As, in consequence of his express desire, no acclamations were uttered of *Vive le Roi*, the people thus mute, signified their attachment in the field by clapping their hands when he appeared.

The Queen, dressed with infinite elegance, wearing ribbands and other ornaments, of the national colours, deposed herself with that sweet Majesty for which she in happier times would be adored, and displayed "a mind not to be changed by place or time."

The Prince Royal wore the uniform of the *Garde Nationale*, and was received with the smile of nearly general fondness.

The oath being taken, was announced by a flame upon the altar, which started up immediately, of the national colours, and which served for a signal to the firing of the cannon without.

As we have above stated, the King was much incommoded upon the platform before the altar, and the place was so thronged, that it was impossible to descend on the other side to that on which he went up, and in course he returned the way he came. The ceremony then took place of firing the symbols of perishing nobility, and of course in such an assembly, the exultation was more outrageous than to the eye of reason seemed necessary; and the cry of *Vive Pethion* recommenced.

The deputies then escorted the royal family to the military school, where getting into their carriages, they proceeded slowly towards the *Thuileries*, by the same route they had arrived.

#### DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

The *Sierra Leona Company's Ship Felicity*, Captain Moxey, from *Sierra Leona*, is arrived and brings advices of the 24th of April.

The fever which the free Blacks had brought with them from *Nova-Scotia*, and which had also carried off several of them after their arrival in *Africa*, appeared to be entirely stopped, and the whole colony was in remarkably good health.

One white man only, besides the physician, had died, and neither of these deaths could be attributed to the climate.

Some of the natives appeared at first to doubt the peaceable intentions of the company, and they had not yet lent any material assistance to the Colony; but the Settlers were so numerous and so industriously disposed as not to be dependant upon them; a more friendly disposition had also begun to shew itself, and the good offices of King Nauma-

Naimbanna had been exerted in favour of the Company.

From the beginning of March, when the fleet of transports from Nova-Scotia arrived, to the date of these dispatches, the Settlers had been busy in clearing the land, and erecting a temporary town, to serve for their shelter and accommodation during the rainy season, which was expected to set in this year more early than usual, and there was no doubt of their accomplishing this object in due time; and the progress of the Colony, in other respects, had not in this short period of seven or eight weeks been considerable.

The son of a neighbouring Chief has come over in the *Felicity* for education in England.

From the steps they have hitherto been able to take, it appears that cotton and coffee may in many parts be cultivated, and sugar in several places; they have discovered a large quantity of rich iron ore, with a fine soft stone, which by its quality of resisting heat is peculiarly adapted to building furnaces.

#### MARRIED.

James Weeks, Esq. of Bristol, to Miss Chambers, of Jamaica.

Joseph Willson, Esq. to Miss Maitland, of Greenwich.

James Store, Esq. of Lambeth, to Miss Updel, of Gerrard-street.

Sir John Scott, of Ancrum, to Miss Harriet Graham, of Gartman.

John Burnaby, Esq. of Herefordshire, to Miss Bulkeley, of Uxbridge.

Owen Williams, Esq. of the Adelphi, to Miss Hopkins, of Flintshire.

Pellat Pope, Esq. of Beddington Park, to Miss Charlotte Durand, of Woodcote Lodge.

The Rev. Steward Jenkins, of Locking, Somersetshire, to Miss E. Portal, of Freetown, Hampshire.

Capt. Hugh Stewart, to Miss Mc. Dowal.

Charles Edward Pigou, Esq. to Miss Charlotte Rycroft, of Clarges-street.

Samuel Wathen, Esq. of Newhouse, in Northamptonshire, to Miss Sheppard, of Frome, Somersetshire.

Richard Burch, Esq. of Oxford-street, to Miss A. G. Burch, of Hillourt.

The Right Hon. the Earl of Inchiquin, to Miss Palmer, niece of the late Sir J. Reynolds.

Joseph Forster Barham, Esq. to Lady Caroline Tuston.

The Rev. George Bridgeman, to Lady Lucy Boyle.

#### DIED.

At his house in Grosvenor-square, the Right Hon. Frederic North, Earl of Guildford, Baron North and Guildford, Warden of the Cinque Ports, Governor of Dover Castle, Lord Lieutenant of Somersetshire,

Chancellor of Oxford, Recorder of Gloucester and Taunton, an Elder Brother of the Trinity House, a Governor of the Turkey Company and Charter House, and President of the Foundling Hospital, and the Asylum.----His Lordship was born on the 14th of April, 1732, and married on the 10th of May, 1756, Miss Ann Speke, an heiress of the ancient family of Dillington, in Somersetshire, by whom he has left two sons and three daughters. The eldest son, George Augustus, born September 11, 1757, and married September 30, 1785, to Miss Hobart, who succeeds to the Earldom and the estates. His Lordship succeeded his father on the 4th of August, 1790.

The Right Hon. John Burgoyne, a Privy Counsellor, Lieutenant-general in the army, Colonel of the 4th regiment of foot, and Member of Parliament for Preston. His death was occasioned by a sudden attack of the gout. He was an elegant writer, and one of the best of men. As a military name that of the General was not alone marked by misfortune, although the unfortunate capture at Saratoga exposed him to much censure. Yet he served in Portugal with infinite reputation, where he commanded in chief: and that, originally as volunteer in America, his conduct was distinguished. It was in Portugal General Burgoyne contracted a friendship with General Charles Lee—a friendship which was afterwards destined to suffer the division of politics; the former endeavouring to crush, by the assistance of his talents, American resistance, and the latter labouring to rear American independence. This opposition produced a correspondence so excellent, as even yet to be remembered. His private character has been marked by a liberality. Possessing talents such as form the best charm of society, he lived in the great world and with it; seeking no stamp from eccentricity, but by a happy conformity deriving variable pleasure, and conciliating enviable esteem. For the drama, indeed, he has done much openly, and more in private. Several pieces of his were performed in America, of which we have no copies, and some even performed here, it is believed, attacked the town from the masked batteries of other names.

At Enfield, the Rev. John Ryland, A. M. who was for a long series of years Minister of the congregation of Baptist Dissenters at Northampton. His zeal and indefatigable exertions in the promotion of religious knowledge were almost unexampled, for with the most unwearied diligence and anxiety, he hath, for upwards of forty years past, made it his serious duty to enlighten the minds of the lower orders of the people; as well by discovering to them the elements of the sciences, useful to their situations, as well as by the practice of the Christian religion.

BANK.

**BANKRUPTS.**

Henry Birkett, of Birmingham, buckle-maker. Floyd Clay Peck, of Chelmsford, Suffex, drugst. John Peter Du Roveray, of Great St. Helen's, in the city of London, merchant. Samuel Dawes, of the Strand, grocer. Samuel Bradford, of Sheffield, Yorkshire, white metal manufacturer. Lewis John Cole, of Vere-street, Oxford-road, linen-draper. James Tilden, of Milton next Gravesend, in the county of Kent, butcher. Walter Patterfon, late of Queen-square, Westminster, merchant. Stephen Lawfon, of Rotherhithe, in the county of Surry, ship-carver. William Miller, of Fleet-market, London, grocer. William Garnett, of Sheffield, in the county of York, grocer. John Broadhurst, late of Newcastle under Lyme, hat-maker. William Glas, of Manchester, merchant. Peter John Minvielle, of Liverpool, merchant. James Taylor, of Manchester, slater. Geo. Syder, late of Thetford, in the county of Norfolk, merchant. Thomas Bell, of Bermondsey-street, Borough, Southwark, cheefemonger. John Cookfon, of Walington, in the county of Surry, bleacher. Thomas Phillips, late of Great Queen-street, money-fcrivener. Catherine Atkins, otherwife called Catherine Abbot, of Pall Mall, Westminster, milliner. William Henry Cook, late of Goswell-street Road, Middlesex, tobacco-manufacturer. James Buckley and John Coppendall, of Norton Falgate, Middlesex, oil and colourmen. Joseph Hopwood, of long Acre, Middlesex lace-man. Abraham Ergas, of Little Ayliffe-street, Goodman's-fields, Middlesex, merchant. George Frafer, of No. 14, Beaufort Buildings, in the Strand, taylor. Alexander Morgan, of the Strand, hatter, and hofier. William Bryant, of Southampton, carpet-manufacturer. John Treeve, of the Borough of Penryn, in the county of Cornwall, common brewer. George Phillips, of Fairford, Gloucestershire, vintner. Robert Castley, of Worship-square, near Moorfields, Middlesex, horfe-dealer. John Thompson, of Plymouth Dock, linen-draper. John Babb, Samuel Cooper, and Robert Brewin, of Leadenhall-street, hofiers. Phineas Jacob, late of the city of Norwich, tobacco-nift. John Dewhurst, of Aultin Friars, merchant. Joseph Webb, of Basinghall-street, trunk-maker. William Lomer, late of Gosport, grocer and baker. William Bulkley and Thomas Cresfbyre, of Salford in Lancashire, merchants. Thomas Harrington and Thomas Taylor, of Clark's-court, Bishopsgate-street, London, dealers in wool. Jonathan Hayne, of Thornhaugh-street, in the parish of St. Giles in the Fields, Middlesex, apothecary. Henry Billington, of Great Russell-street, Covent-Garden, Middlesex, mercer. Law Kemp, now or late of Maidstone, Kent, tanner. Arthur Basilford, of Manchester, in the county of Lancaster, millin

manufacturer. Robert Nichol, late of Stanwix, in the county of Cumberland, carpenter. Joseph Browning, of Leadenhall-street, London, hardwareman. John Kennworthy, of Manchester, cornfactor. Wm. Reed, late First Mate of the Lancelles East Indiaman, mariner. Samuel Wallis, of New-street, Bandy-leg-walk, Southwark, Surry, carpenter. Benjamin Sigston, of Beverley, Yorkshire, spirit-merchaur. John Watts, of liverpool, Lancaster, liquor-dealer. James Sperthott, of the parish of Merther, in the county of Cornwall, flour-factor. James Gibfon, of Globe yard, Wapping, carpenter. Thomas Silk, late of London Wall, in the parish of St. Alphage, London, plaisterer. Thomas Hyde, of the town of Pool, merchant. George Davis, of the city of Bath, in the county of Somerset, banker. James Garden, of Love-lane, Aldermanbury, London, factor. Ralph Chambers, of Long Acre, fadler. Edward Barry, of Long Acre, upholsterer. George Clementfon, of St. John's-street, Middlesex, man's mercer. Thomas Mallefon, of Cornhill, London, silverfmith. Michael Carver, of Birmingham, button-maker. Edward Colcott, of Northleigh, Oxfordshire, maltster. John Green, of Aughton, Lancashire, cornfactor. Richard Taylor, Russell-street, Covent-garden, lincndraper. Tho. Mafon, late of Birmingham, baker. John Grenfell, of St. Ive's, in the county of Cornwall, grocer. Joseph Rider, late of Levenshulme, in the county of Lancater, cotton-spinner. Jas. Radcliffe and Charles Smethurst, of Oldham, in the parish of Prestwich, in the county palantine of Lancaster, cotton-manufacturers. William Morgan, of Portfmouth, Hants, linen-draper. Thomas Down, of Bedfordbury Covent-garden, Middlesex, woollen-draper. Charles Derecourt, now or late of the city of Bristol, wine-merchant. Wm. Harvey, of Falmouth, Cornwall, grocer. Richard Cooke, of Liverpool, mercer. Selby Ports, of the Adelphi, Middlesex, coal-merchant. Joseph Smith, of Lombard-street, London, goldfmith. Ralph Jennings and Thomas Griffith, of the city of Bath, jewellers and toymen. Wm. West, of Gosport, county of Southampton, brafier. Wm. Warwick, of Birmingham, buckle-maker. Joseph Scott, of Nether-row parish of Calbeck Cumberland, dealer and chapman. Peter Sidebottom, late of Great Portland-street, in the parish of St. Mary-le-bonne, in the county of Middlesex, ironmonger. Peter Murphy, of Manchester, in the county of Lancaster, mufiin-manufacturer. Hugh Muir, of Liverpool, in the county of Lancaster, grocer. William Pyke, now or late of Bridgwater, in the county of Somerset, merchant. John Sifcott, of Queen-street, Golden-square, in the county of Middlesex, staymaker. Henry Tonkin, late of Gosport, in the county of Hants, innholder.

## PRICE OF STOCKS IN JULY AND AUGUST, 1792.

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per Ct. Reduced.	13 per Ct. Confol.	4 per Ct. Confol.	5 per Ct. Navy.	Long Ann.	Short Ann.	India Stock.	India Ann.	India Bonds.	S. Sea Stock.	Old Ann.	New Ann.	13 per Ct. 1751	New Navy.	Exch. Bills.	Tontine	Lottery Tickets.
12	12	92 1/2	91 1/2	101 1/2	117 1/2	26 1/2	11 1/2	208	86 1/2	109	—	91 1/2	—	—	15 pr.	—	—	16 8 0
13	13	92 1/2	91 1/2	101 1/2	117 1/2	26 1/2	11 1/2	209 1/2	86 1/2	110	—	92 1/2	—	—	15 pr.	—	—	16 7 6
14	14	92 1/2	91 1/2	101 1/2	117 1/2	26 1/2	11 1/2	209 1/2	86 1/2	110	—	92 1/2	—	—	15 pr.	—	—	16 8 6
15	15	92 1/2	91 1/2	101 1/2	117 1/2	26 1/2	11 1/2	209 1/2	86 1/2	110	—	92 1/2	—	—	15 pr.	—	—	16 9 0
16	16	92 1/2	91 1/2	101 1/2	117 1/2	26 1/2	11 1/2	209 1/2	86 1/2	110	—	92 1/2	—	—	15 pr.	—	—	16 9 0
17	17	92 1/2	91 1/2	101 1/2	117 1/2	26 1/2	11 1/2	209 1/2	86 1/2	110	—	92 1/2	—	—	15 pr.	—	—	16 11 0
18	18	92 1/2	91 1/2	101 1/2	117 1/2	26 1/2	11 1/2	209 1/2	86 1/2	110	—	92 1/2	—	—	15 pr.	—	—	16 11 0
19	19	92 1/2	91 1/2	101 1/2	117 1/2	26 1/2	11 1/2	209 1/2	86 1/2	110	—	92 1/2	—	—	15 pr.	—	—	16 12 0
20	20	92 1/2	91 1/2	101 1/2	117 1/2	26 1/2	11 1/2	209 1/2	86 1/2	110	—	92 1/2	—	—	15 pr.	—	—	16 12 0
21	21	92 1/2	91 1/2	101 1/2	117 1/2	26 1/2	11 1/2	209 1/2	86 1/2	110	—	92 1/2	—	—	15 pr.	—	—	16 12 0
22	22	92 1/2	91 1/2	101 1/2	117 1/2	26 1/2	11 1/2	209 1/2	86 1/2	110	—	92 1/2	—	—	15 pr.	—	—	16 12 0
23	23	92 1/2	91 1/2	101 1/2	117 1/2	26 1/2	11 1/2	209 1/2	86 1/2	110	—	92 1/2	—	—	15 pr.	—	—	16 11 6
24	24	92 1/2	91 1/2	101 1/2	117 1/2	26 1/2	11 1/2	209 1/2	86 1/2	110	—	92 1/2	—	—	15 pr.	—	—	16 11 6
25	25	92 1/2	91 1/2	101 1/2	117 1/2	26 1/2	11 1/2	209 1/2	86 1/2	110	—	92 1/2	—	—	15 pr.	—	—	16 11 0
26	26	92 1/2	91 1/2	101 1/2	117 1/2	26 1/2	11 1/2	209 1/2	86 1/2	110	—	92 1/2	—	—	15 pr.	—	—	16 11 0
27	27	92 1/2	91 1/2	101 1/2	117 1/2	26 1/2	11 1/2	209 1/2	86 1/2	110	—	92 1/2	—	—	15 pr.	—	—	16 11 0
28	28	92 1/2	91 1/2	101 1/2	117 1/2	26 1/2	11 1/2	209 1/2	86 1/2	110	—	92 1/2	—	—	15 pr.	—	—	16 11 0
29	29	92 1/2	91 1/2	101 1/2	117 1/2	26 1/2	11 1/2	209 1/2	86 1/2	110	—	92 1/2	—	—	15 pr.	—	—	16 11 0
30	30	92 1/2	91 1/2	101 1/2	117 1/2	26 1/2	11 1/2	209 1/2	86 1/2	110	—	92 1/2	—	—	15 pr.	—	—	16 11 0
31	31	92 1/2	91 1/2	101 1/2	117 1/2	26 1/2	11 1/2	209 1/2	86 1/2	110	—	92 1/2	—	—	15 pr.	—	—	16 11 0

METEOROLOGICAL DIARY  
In LONDON, for AUGUST, 1792.

By Mr. W. JONES, Optician, HOLBORN.

Height of the Barometer and Thermometer  
with Fahrenheit's Scale.

Days	Barometer Inches, and 100th Parts.		Thermome- ter Fahrenheit's		Weather in August, 1792.
	8 o'Clock Morning.	11 o'Clock Night.	8 o'Clock Morning.	11 o'Clock. Noon.	
22	29 81	29 88	59	64	52 Fair
23	29 86	29 90	56	65	55 Ditto
24	29 75	29 72	58	66	56 Ditto
25	29 64	29 60	60	65	60 Rain
26	29 52	29 52	65	70	56 Ditto
27	29 47	29 47	64	67	60 Ditto
28	29 52	29 52	60	68	54 Fair
29	29 47	29 47	60	65	56 Rain
30	29 71	29 87	59	70	62 Fair
31	29 94	30 10	61	67	61 Cloudy
1	30 02	30 07	67	73	68 Fair
2	30 10	29 99	69	78	65 Ditto
3	29 82	29 79	70	77	60 Ditto
4	29 75	29 70	69	76	60 Ditto
5	29 64	29 62	65	70	60 Cloudy
6	29 70	29 80	63	71	60 Fair
7	29 94	29 97	60	68	64 Ditto
8	30 07	30 08	65	71	62 Cloudy
9	30 02	30 02	66	78	65 Fair
10	30 04	30 03	70	79	69 Ditto
11	29 99	30 02	67	80	67 Ditto
12	29 98	30 04	68	83	60 Ditto
13	29 83	29 81	69	75	64 Ditto
14	29 82	29 83	67	70	64 Ditto
15	29 88	29 82	63	70	62 Ditto
16	29 63	29 59	64	74	58 Ditto
17	29 71	29 52	60	73	56 Ditto
18	29 43	29 60	55	56	52 Rain
19	29 70	29 80	63	60	53 Cloudy

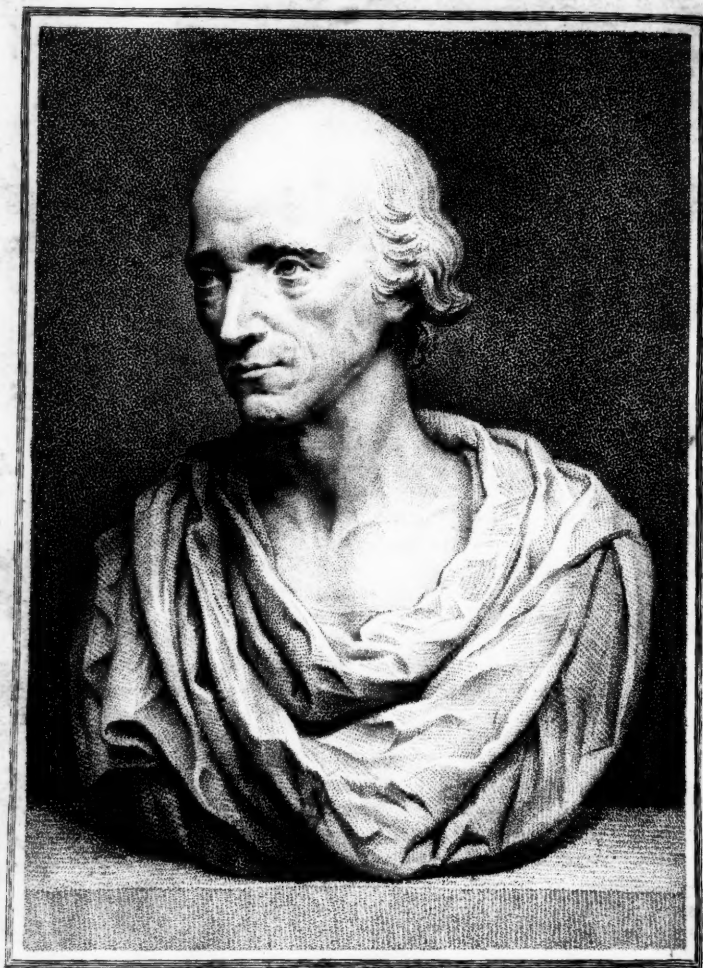
PRICES OF CORN,  
For AUGUST, 1792.

From 6 to 13.—From 13 to 20.

	s.	d.	s.	d.
Wheat	40	2	40	0
Rye	29	0	25	0
Barley	25	2	25	6
Oats	18	1	18	0
Beans	30	6	31	0

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*David Nash*

**WARREN HASTINGS Esq.**

*After a Bust by M<sup>r</sup>. Banks, in the Possession of -*

**William Seward Esq.**